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LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

We think that we have made it clear, in what we have already said on this subject, first, that there is no absolute legal or medical definition of insanity possible ; and second, that where insanity exists, of such a type as to render the confinement of the patient desirable, either for his own protection or that of others, there immediately arise, in addition to the purely medical question of the existence of cerebral (mental) disease, other questions, not medical in their nature, which are properly referable to a court.

The intervention of the courts is not called for, until it becomes necessary to restrain the patient of his personal liberty, or to deprive him of control of his property. But the power to do either of these acts is vested solely in the courts, under the constitution, and ought not to be conferred upon any private person, whether a physician or not.

We proceed to ask, what form should the intervention of the court assume ?

The reply to this interrogatory must take into account the distinction between crime and insanity, and also the distinction between trial and inquest.

The forms of judicial procedure, in so far as they spring from the constitution of the tribunal itself and the nature of legal process in general, are in many particulars identical, whether the evidence and the ultimate decision relate to matters civil or criminal. But the court, and all the parties in interest, in any investigation of the sanity of any person suspected of being a lunatic, need to be profoundly impressed with the thought that such an inquiry is no part of the criminal business of the court. Insanity is not crime. On the contrary, where insanity is proved, crime is impossible. Even those acts which would be criminal in a sane man, lose their attribute of guilt in the insane. The law holds that a lunatic is an irresponsible person. All forms of procedure which suggest any analogy between crime and insanity, are objectionable in the hightest degree. They tend to confound the two, in the mind of the patient and of the public. Thus they create a prejudice against the insane as a class. They therefore encourage the concealment of the presence of this malady, on the part of the patient's family and friends, who are unwilling to cast reproach upon his name ; they lead to delay in his commitment to the care of an institution, and such delay diminishes the probability of recovery from the disease. In this way they increase the pecuniary burden entailed upon the community by the accumulation in asylums of cases of confirmed lunacy, and augment the sum of human suffering.

Again : crime is either confessed or established by the formality of a public trial. What is a trial ? A trial is "the examination before a competent tribunal, according to the laws of the land, of the facts put in issue in a cause, for the purpose of determining such issue." There can be no trial where there is no issue. Mark also the use of the word "cause" in this definition. A cause is "a suit or action, civil or criminal, contested before a court of justice." The basis of a trial is a contest between opposing parties. An action is "a specific mode of enforcing a right." The purpose of a trial is to prevent the perpetration of a wrong, or to redress a wrong already perpetrated. The word suit "applies to any proceeding in a court of justice, in which the plaintiff pursues in such court the remedy which the law allows him." In a trial, there must be parties—a plaintiff and a defendant. All of these characters appertain to a criminal trial, where the defendant is "accused" of having perpetrated a wrong, he denies it, and the court is called to decide the issue and determine whether any right has been violated, and what reparation is due, if any, from the prisoner at the bar.

But an inquiry into the sanity of a supposed lunatic is not a trial ; it is an inquest. Crime is the violation of a penal statute ; but there is no statute against insanity, and there can be none. Crime is "a wrong which the government notices as injurious to the public" ; but the insane man is guilty of no wrong. The only case in which a trial may grow out of an inquest into the sanity of an alleged lunatic, is where the lunatic or his friends acting for him declare that the allegation of insanity is false, and demand a trial. Otherwise there is no issue, there are no parties, there is no wrong ; and there is no occasion for the application of any remedy.

We lay great stress upon these distinctions, which are fundamental. No lunacy law which fails to recognize them, and which is not in fact built upon this foundation, can stand the test of impartial scrutiny. It is a house built upon the sand.

Enough has been already said, to indicate what appears to be the fact, that the great and apparently interminable debate as to the character of proceeding requisite for the commitment to an insane hospital of a person alleged to be insane, is in large measure a duel between the medical and legal professions. As commonly happens in disputes, neither disputant is wholly right nor wholly wrong. It is our aim, in this series of articles, to adjust the quarrel. We desire to remove misapprehension ; to draw distinctions ; to point out the line of demarcation between the function of the physician and that of the lawyer, in respect to insanity ; to secure to each of these two professions the fullest possible recognition of its rights, duties, and responsibilities toward the most pitiable and afflicted class of beings upon earth ; and so to protect the insane themselves from becoming the innocent victims of a needless strife, in which they are unable to take any active part, and in the violence of which their rights are in danger of being overlooked and forgotten.

Putnams (London) have sent me a copy of your journal, for which I desire all the success you can wish. I am glad that such a periodical has been established, and have no doubt that it will be of great service to the cause of humanity. If I can write any thing for your paper, or communicate any information, I will gladly do so. Believe me yours always.

D. HACK TUKE, M.D.

Hanwell, England, April 15th.

The *London Lancet* speaks highly of "The Causes and Prevention of Blindness," by Dr. Fuchs, Professor of Ophthalmology in the University of Liege, translated by Dr. R. E. Dudgeon, and published by Baillière, Tundall, & Cox. London, 1885.

THE FRIENDLY VISITOR'S SUCCESS.

Not alms, but a friend.

Conduct your intercourse with the poor on this basis of honest, simple friendship.

The gift you have to make to the poor is the greatest of all gifts you can make—the gift of yourself.

The work of the Friendly Visitor sometimes removes the pain of hunger; but the hungry may be fed, while the object of his visit is not attained or even approached. Clothing and fuel may bring warmth and protection where both were bitterly needed, and still no progress may have been made toward the true success of the Friendly Visitor's work. Not long ago a newspaper paragraph brought, to a vile tenement in Brooklyn, food by cartloads and a large sum of money; yet the wretched life in that tenement went on with hardly a perceptible change in its wretchedness. There was but slight visible abatement of even physical misery. We may change the environment of a family, and yet (as in the well-known experiments in London, Philadelphia, and New York) no sooner are our hands off, than the improved surroundings begin at once to sink toward the old level of filth and squalor, unless some desire for a better state of things has been awakened.

It is true that improvement in surroundings does influence character, and may be used as a subordinate means to the end sought, but it must always be remembered that our ultimate aim is not the mere improvement of external things, but that we have a part in that warfare, even the weapons of which are not carnal but spiritual. When our work has been fairly successful in a given case, the wolf is likely to be kept from the door, the door is likely to be whole and to open into a clean and well-kept house, in which are all the conditions essential to physical health and comfort. These results have great intrinsic value, but their greatest worth is as signs of changes which have taken place on a higher plane. The cleansing of house and person and surroundings, considered as an indication that the cleansing of a soul is begun, and that the outer life is being harmonized with the inner life, is prophetic of a transformation so great that we have no measure for its importance.

Few of us, perhaps none of us, may have the satisfaction of a fully developed success distinctly traceable to our personal efforts. Two years since a Friendly Visitor took up a case of special distress and special peril. This case has steadily improved and developed. Self-support was some time ago reached, and the future is hopeful. What *is* contrasts strongly with what *would have been* (so far as we can see) but for the work of the Visitor. And yet scarcely one of the present features of the case is distinctly recognizable as a result of the Friendly Visitor's endeavor. We put forth our effort as an arrow is shot into a storm. We send it with such force and direction as we may, but other forces catch it and swerve it from the direction which we meant to give it. Our effort is not, therefore lost. It strikes home, but not where we aimed. The effect may be less or more than we expected. Probably it differs from our expectation, and because it differs we may fail to recognize it. Sometimes we may not recognize our success, because we do not find upon it the legible marks of our special influence. The marks are there, doubtless, but they may be obscured by an impress stronger than ours. The best success for which we can hope is not in results which stand out in bold relief upon the character of our "case," but in those which have seized and wrought upon and built into the character, and which can no longer be identified as the consequence of this or that endeavor of a friend. And sometimes if our work has been true and earnest, it may even be that we do not see the effect, because it is nearer to the very head of the desired issue than we had dared to look for it.

The success of our work may come in a crisis when an aroused manhood asserts itself against the power of evil, and with sudden revulsion throws it off, and the emancipated life seems to take its place at once upon a new earth beneath new heavens. But the changes which we seek to accomplish are almost always slow, and are marked by gradations so slight that we may fail to note any progress, though we watch anxiously. The success which we may be able to realize will probably be reached through many repeated attempts, after many disappointments and much waiting. "Charity suffereth long."

Meanwhile let us be alert to observe the faintest indication of progress. Let us not overlook small things. Whenever one who was doing wrong is persuaded to do right, however trivial the occasion may seem to be, that is a solid gain. That is a part of our success.

It is given to us, if we accept the conditions of the gift to see the bondage of evil habit broken; to see heredity balked of its prey; to see the obstructions which shut out light from the inner life, withdrawing their shadows and disappearing; to watch the progress of enlightenment, the growth of cleanly instincts, the awakening of a higher consciousness, the gradual recognition of the real possessions and the real poverty; to see the unrest, the anxious, wistful outstretching, which mark the beginning of the hunger and thirst of the inner life. These are indications of the beginnings of our success. The developed result is and must remain beyond the present range of our vision.

GEORGE B. BUZELLE,
Secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities.

THE FEMALE GUARDIAN SOCIETY.

The American Female Guardian Society has a history worth repeating. Organized in the city of New York in May, 1834, it is now more than half a century old in experience and good works. Its original name was "The New York Moral Reform Society." Its aim was the promotion of female purity; and its motto, "Remedy: if practicable: Prevention, by every possible Christian endeavor." It at once established a journal called *The Advocate of Moral Reform*, meaning, by reform, not exclusively and specifically the reformation of the abandoned, but reform in public sentiment and social customs. This paper (whose total circulation was once forty thousand copies) is still published under the name of *Advocate and Family Guardian*. The society then proceeded to employ female missionaries to the most abandoned portions of the city. It opened a registry and office of direction—an employment bureau. In 1839, or within five years from its organization, it had begun to wield a national influence, and the name of the association was changed to "The American Female Moral Reform Society," with vice-presidents in the several States. It organized auxiliary societies, of which it had at one time nearly four hundred. It held a semi-annual meeting, the first of which was convened in Utica, in 1839. It added to its work a Bethel department, for sailors; and the destitution found to exist in the families of seamen led to the formation of the "Mariners' Family Industrial Association." The visits paid to prisons interested the members in the condition of female prisoners and led to the establishment, by the legislature of New York, of a separate department for women. The histories related by the female convicts deepened the conviction that prevention is more essential and practical than reformation. It was determined to establish a home for the friendless, which was opened in 1847 in a hired house; but in 1849, the building on Thirtieth street, between Madison and Fourth avenues, now occupied for that purpose, was completed, though enlarged, in 1856, by the erection of a chapel on Twenty-ninth street. In 1854, an industrial school was started, which was followed in 1857 by a second, and these by others, until the society has now no less than twelve such schools in active operation. In 1872, the registry department developed into a shelter, or

temporary home for women. In 1879, the society received as a gift a summer home for children, at Oceanport, New Jersey, consisting of a large and commodious house, with four acres of ground, now known as the "Branch Home." This association is composed of women, officered by women, and its employés are women. Its annual expenses are about $90,000. It has no endowment, but is maintained by gifts and subscriptions. It disburses a limited amount of out-door relief. Since the opening of the Home, it has cared for more than thirty thousand friendless women and children, and "out of it have gone to permanent and mainly happy homes, six thousand little ones, who otherwise would have grown up unloved, uncared for, untrained, with souls unsaved." On the rolls of the industrial schools maintained by the society, more than five thousand names are constantly carried.

A NOBLE CHARITY.

The Thomas Wilson Sanatorium, of Baltimore, Md., enjoys the possession of a fund of $500,000, the bequest of the gentleman after whom this charity is named, for the alleviation of the pains and the prolongation of the lives of little children.

The trustees purchased, in 1881, a tract of 168 acres about ten miles northwest of the city, 573 feet above mean tide, with three groves of fine forest trees, two large springs, and a beautiful, rapid stream of water flowing over a gravelly bottom. By the natural conformation of the ground it is divided into two quite distinct parts: one of these, with a southeastern exposure, has been devoted to the use of the day excursionists; the other, with a southwestern exposure, is appropriated to the buildings designed for those who remain at the Sanatorium for a longer period, which are to be erected this year.

The main building for the day excursions is 87 feet long, 37 feet wide, 2 stories high, with a steep roof, and has a veranda 17 feet wide surrounding it. Each floor consists of a single room. The lower floor is furnished with settees, rocking-chairs, and cribs, and is used by mothers as a sitting-room and nursery; a large open fire-place provides means for fire should the temperature require it. On the upper floor is the dining-room, which is open from the floor to the ridge of the roof. The walls and ceilings are of oiled yellow pine. A wing, 36 feet square, contains on the first floor the doctor's office, parcel-room, two store-rooms, refrigerators, and ice-chest; on the second floor the kitchen, pantry, and china-closet; over the kitchen are large linen and blanket closets. The kitchen and dining-room are connected by a covered bridge.

To the south and rear of the main building is a three-story cottage, containing a large bath-room with five tubs, laundry, physicians' parlor and bed-rooms, and bed-rooms for the servants.

For the accommodation of those mothers and children who remain overnight four cottages of two rooms each, and one two-story cottage of six rooms have been built; these are furnished with iron bedsteads, and cribs with wire-woven bottoms and hair mattresses and pillows.

Earth-closets are used exclusively. A servant is placed in charge, who is held responsible for the cleanliness and inodorousness of the building; the pans are removed each morning, and the contents treated with quick-lime and dry earth.

The grounds have been improved, and hammocks, baby-wagons, and cribs are supplied to such as wish to use them. Admission is obtained by application at the various dispensaries of the city. An effort is made to confine the benefits of the Sanatorium, as nearly as possible, to sick children under three years of age. Transportation, food, and medical attendance are furnished without charge. Three meals are given, and baths freely ordered.

Every child is examined by the physicians, but no medicine is prescribed unless the case demands it, and the mother has none from the physician who attends the child at home. Great attention is paid to minute and scientific observation of the cases presented for relief, and the medical reports are of value, but we will not attempt to give a summary of the conclusions contained in them.

CHARITY IN THE EARLY CHURCH.

There is certainly no other feature of the old civilization so repulsive as the indifference to suffering that it displayed.

Very different was the aspect presented by the early church. Long before the era of persecution had closed, the hospital and the Xenodochion, or refuge for strangers, were known among the Christians. The epitaphs in the catacombs abundantly prove the multitude of foundlings that were sustained by their charity; and when Christianity became the dominant religion, the protection of infants was one of the first changes that was manifested in the laws. The frequent famines and the frightful distress caused by the invasion of the barbarians, and by the transition from slavery to freedom, were met by the most boundless, the most lavish benevolence. The Fathers were ceaselessly exhorting to charity, and in language so emphatic that it seemed sometimes almost to ignore the rights of property, and to verge upon absolute communism. The gladiatorial games were ceaselessly denounced; but the affection with which they were regarded by the people long resisted the efforts of philanthropists, till, in the midst of the spectacle, the monk Telemachus rushed between the combatants, and his blood was the last that stained the arena. But perhaps the noblest testimony to the extent and the catholicity of Christian charity was furnished by an adversary. Julian exerted all his energies to produce a charitable movement among the Pagans, "for it is a scandal," he said, "that the Galileans should support the destitute, not only of their religion, but of ours."

In reading the history of that noble efflorescence of charity which marked the first ages of Christianity, it is impossible to avoid reflecting upon the strange destiny which has consigned almost all its authors to obscurity, while the names of those who took any conspicuous part in sectarian history have become household words among mankind. We hear much of martyrs who sealed their testimony with blood; of courageous missionaries, who planted the standard of the Cross among savage nations and in pestilential climes; but we hear little of that heroism of charity which, with no precedent to guide it, and with every early habit to oppose it, confronted the most loathsome forms of suffering, and, for the first time in the history of humanity, made pain and hideous disease the objects of a reverential affection. In the intellectual condition of bygone centuries, it was impossible that these things should be appreciated as they deserved. Charity was practised, indeed, nobly and constantly, but it did not strike the imagination, it did not elicit the homage of mankind. It was regarded by the masses as an entirely subordinate department of virtue; and the noblest efforts of philanthropy excited far less admiration than the macerations of an anchorite or the proselytizing zeal of a sectarian. Fabiola, that Roman lady who seems to have done more than any other single individual in the creation of the first hospitals; St. Landry, the great apostle of charity in France; even Telemachus himself, are all obscure names in history. The men who organized that vast network of hospitals that overspread Europe after the Crusades have passed altogether from recollection. It was not till the seventeenth century, when modern habits of thought were widely diffused, that St. Vincent de Paul arose and furnished an example of a saint who is profoundly and universally revered, and who owes that reverence to the splendor of his charity.

But although it is true that during many centuries the philanthropist was placed upon a far lower level than at present, it is not the less true that charity was one of the earliest, as it was one of the noblest, creations of Christianity; and that, independently of the incalculable mass of suffering it has assuaged, the influence it has exercised in softening and purifying the character, in restraining the passions, and enlarging the symypathies of mankind, has made it one of the most important elements of our civilization. The precepts and examples of the Gospel struck a chord of pathos which the noblest philosophies of antiquity had never reached. For the first time the aureole of sanctity encircled the brow of sorrow and invested it with a mysterious charm. It is related of an old Catholic saint that, at the evening of a laborious and well-spent life, Christ appeared to him as a man of sorrows, and, commending his past exertions, asked him what reward he would desire. Fame, and wealth, and earthly pleasures had no attractions to one who had long been weaned from the things of sense; yet the prospect of other and spiritual blessings for a moment thrilled the saint with joy; but when he looked upon that sacred brow, still shadowed as with the anguish of Gethsemane, every selfish wish was forgotten, and, with a voice of ineffable love, he answered: "Lord, that I might suffer most!" LECKY.

Mr. George B. Harward, a deaf-mute of Raleigh, N. C., has invented an ear-coupler.

UNIFORM STATISTICS.

THE FINANCIAL REPORTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

There are a number of States in which State Boards of Charity exist and have power under the law to prescribe the forms in which financial and statistical reports shall be made to them by the State institutions under their charge. If these boards could agree among themselves upon substantially the same forms, comparisons could be made between the States which are at present impossible, owing to the great diversity of forms now used. For some years past the importance of such an agreement has been growing more apparent; and last summer, at Saratoga, at a meeting of the secretaries of the State Boards, an initial step was taken in this direction by the appointment of sub-committees on the different divisions of the subject. One of these committees, consisting of Messrs. Wright, of Wisconsin, and Hart, of Minnesota, which was charged with the study of the financial statistics of institutions, has substantially agreed upon its report, and we are permitted to give here the outline of it.

The finances of an institution are included under three heads—income, disbursements, and inventory.

Income.

All the possible sources of income of an institution are probably shown in the following summary:

1. Legacies and donations.
2. Interest on investments.
3. Appropriations.
4. Charges for board, tuition, treatment, clothing, etc., which may be against—
   (*a*). Counties or towns.
   (*b*). Individuals.
5. Cash receipts for labor of inmates, which may be—
   (*a*). On public account.
   (*b*). On contract system or piece-price plan.
6. Cash sales.

Disbursements.

From whatever fund disbursements may be made, they naturally fall under one of two heads—maintenance and construction; or ordinary and extraordinary expenses. The comparison which is most important relates to maintenance, or current expenses, which are proportionate to the number of inmates and should be approximately uniform from year to year; while extraordinary expenses for permanent improvements vary, indefinitely, according to the exigencies of particular occasions and localities.

MAINTENANCE.—Under maintenance should be included: (1) Salaries and wages, (2) food, (3) clothing, (4) fuel and light, (5) medicines and medical supplies, (6) furniture, (7) farm, garden, stock, and grounds, (8) ordinary repairs, (9) net expenses of shops, (10) all other ordinary expenses. It is important that this classification be strictly adhered to.

A distinction exists between gross expenses and net expenses, which should be observed in fairness to the institutions subjected to comparison, since the gross expenses of one institution might be larger than another, and yet the net cost might be less. To find the net cost, deduct from the gross disbursements (as given in the preceding paragraph) the cash receipts from sales and the *net* earnings of shops which are managed on State account; also the receipts for labor of inmates employed under the contract system, or upon the piece-price plan. The remainder will be the dividend required in calculating the per capita cost of maintenance.

The number of days' board furnished to inmates should in all cases be ascertained and stated.

In institutions which have vacations the number of days in the year during which the institution was open and in operation must also be given.

To find the average number of inmates during the year, divide the number of days' board by the number of days in the year. To find the average number during term-time, divide the number of days' board by the number of days in the year during which the institution was in operation, omitting the vacations. Statements of the number of pupils "on the roll" are misleading and should be avoided, or at least ought not to enter into any calculation of per capita cost.

The per capita cost of maintenance is found by dividing the *net* expenses by the average number of inmates.

CONSTRUCTION.—The items to be included under this division of expenses are:

1. Land purchased.
2. New buildings.
3. Furniture and fixtures for new buildings.
4. Extraordinary repairs and improvements, namely: such as increase the value of the property and do not simply serve to keep the institution in its ordinary and normal condition.

Inventory.

The importance of the inventory consists in the fact that an institution may purchase largely in one year, and have supplies to a large amount on hand at its close; or, on the contrary, it may show a low rate of expenditure, but be destitute of supplies at the time when it makes its annual report.

The inventory should be in two divisions:

1. Real estate, including
   (*a*) Land.
   (*b*) Buildings.
   These should be reported at their original cost as nearly as can be ascertained, rather than at their selling price in the market; and the value of all permanent improvements should be added.
2. Personal property.
   It is desirable that, if possible, the value of personal property should be stated, as nearly as may be, under the same heads of classification as are adopted for the current expenses.

Remarks.

To make the subject perfectly clear, the following remarks upon the scheme outlined above should be carefully studied.

It is impossible to secure an absolutely uniform classification of expenditures or disbursements. An approximation to uniformity is the utmost that we can hope to attain.

Under "salaries and wages" should be included all payments made to officers and employés on current-expense account, for service rendered, whether paid from the treasury of the institution or directly from the treasury of the State. If wages paid to foremen, farmers, mechanics, or other persons are charged to any other item of the classification, such as "farm," "repairs," or "shops," that fact, and the amounts so charged, must be stated. But wages paid to mechanics or laborers engaged in the construction of new buildings, etc., are not properly included under this head.

Groceries, other than provisions, must be excluded from "food." No household or laundry supplies, no cutlery, and no crockery, are to be classed as food, but only such articles as are used in the kitchen or come upon the table, and are eaten, the actual aggregate cost of which it is important to ascertain.

Exclude from "clothing," all dry-goods, such as sheets, pillow-cases, towels, bedding, etc., which must be classed under "furniture."

Under "fuel and light," state the cost of each separately, if possible.

Include with "medicines and medical supplies," liquors and tobacco. Do not include the salaries of physicians or nurses, which come under "salaries and wages."

By "furniture" is meant not simply manufactured articles, such as beds, chairs, and tables; but also bedding, house-

furnishing goods, table ware, kitchen ware, etc. Exclude furniture purchased for new buildings or additions.

Under "farm, garden, stock, and grounds" must be classed every thing connected with the outside management of the institution—cattle, horses, farm tools and implements, trees and shrubbery, seeds, feed, etc., etc. But the wages of the farmer and of the farm-hands are to be included under "salaries and wages." If any part of the produce of the farm is credited to the farm and charged to food account, state that fact, and the amount so charged.

Under "ordinary repairs" include all renewals which go to keep the institution up to its ordinary and normal condition, but exclude such improvements as are new and plainly enhance the value of the property.

Under "expenses of shops" state only the cost of material purchased for manufacture or use therein; salaries and wages paid to foremen and shop-hands appear elsewhere.

The item "miscellaneous" embraces every thing not already mentioned, except what is charged to "construction" account. For instance, it includes all expenditures for amusements, apparatus, burial, expressage and freight (if not charged to the articles on which the same is paid), insurance, laundry supplies, legal expenses, library, music, postage, printing, stationery, transportation of inmates, trustees, and officers, telegraphing, water, etc., etc. There is no objection to any institution subdividing this item, if it prefers to do so, since it is easy to throw all that is here meant into a single sum, for the purpose of comparison between the States.

With respect to freight, no absolute rule can be laid down. It is recommended, in order to uniformity, that freight on given articles, particularly on fuel, be added to the orginal cost of such articles, rather than stated separately.

There is a distinction between "disbursements" and "expenditures," which is often overlooked. Disbursements are cash payments; expenditures are purchases, whether for cash or on credit. Some institutions state the one, and some the other; and it is to be suspected that others still pursue a mixed policy, in this regard, which leads to confusion and error. It should be stated definitely whether the institution credits itself with cash disbursements only, or with all expense incurred; and against the inventory, where there is any outstanding indebtedness at the close of the year, the amount of such indebtedness should be given, in order that a balance may be struck between the liabilities of the institution and its assets.

If the foregoing instructions are strictly adhered to, fair comparisons can hereafter be made between all institutions belonging to States which have State boards of charity and correction. The number of such States (including New Jersey) is twelve; and these twelve States had, in 1880, out of a total population of 50,155,783, an aggregate population of 24,184,430, or nearly one half the population of the entire country. Their proportion of the total expenditure from the public treasury for charitable and correctional uses very much exceeds one half. The value of the statistics which may by a concerted effort be procured through their agency, is obvious.

If a standing committee of the National Conference will tabulate these statistics annually, and report them to that body, for publication in its proceedings, we shall soon have a record, whose worth will be beyond expression.

We do not wish to ask too much; but we have a request from the Chief Secretary of Victoria, in Australia, requesting copies of the annual reports of American prisons for the past year. If the officers will, send copies to the Hon. Graham Berry, M. P., Chief Secretary, Melbourne, Victoria, they will confer a favor upon both him and us.

CIRCULAR HOSPITAL WARDS.

The most remarkable and, so far as England is concerned, perhaps the only development in general hospital building of recent years is the circular ward. Like all new inventions, the idea of adopting the circle for the purpose of a sick ward seems to have simultaneously occurred to more than one person. In 1876, when the question of rebuilding University College Hospital, London, was seriously discussed, the distinguished surgeon to that hospital, Mr. John Marshall, F.R.S., devised a plan an essential part of which was that the wards were in the form of four circular towers. About the same time the foundations of a hospital were laid at Antwerp, the wards of which were arranged in eight circular towers; and at a period probably anterior to this, Sir Andrew Clark, R.E., G.C.B., now Inspector-General of Fortifications, prepared a plan for a hospital in Madras with circular wards.

The first circular wards to be actually occupied with patients were those of the Miller Memorial Hospital at Greenwich, a little building erected in memory of the late Canon Miller, founder of Hospital Sunday. Besides this there are in England three other examples of circular wards completed, viz.: military hospitals at Seaforth near Liverpool, and at Milton near Gravesend, and a workhouse infirmary at Hampstead. A general hospital is in course of erection at Burnley, which will have ultimately four ward pavilions of twenty beds each; and in New York a cancer hospital with three circular towers is approaching completion.

The advantages of a circular ward are briefly these: (1) It can be placed without difficulty in many positions in which it would be impossible to put a rectangular ward; (2) in the placing of a circular ward upon a site, aspect can be wholly disregarded, except, of course, as regards the relation of the ward block to other buildings; (3) a circular building can be so planned that the air can have free access to the enclosing walls along the whole length of the circumference; and in whatever direction the wind blows, it must blow at right angles to some point in the circumference, whereas it is conceivable that the wind when blowing in a parallel direction to the longer axis of a rectangular ward would be practically lost for purposes of ventilation; (4) a circular ward is economical of wall; (5) provided that the warming apparatus, whatever it be, is placed in the proper position—in the centre of the ward—the diffusion of warmth will be far more equable in a circular ward than would be possible in a rectangular ward; (6) in the matter of free access of light and air a circular ward possesses advantages superior to those of any other form.

The Tollet System.

The main feature of the system devised by M. Tollet and called by his name lies in the sectional form of the ward, which M. Tollet makes a pointed arch. It is essential to the system that the ward should be of one story only. As an important feature of this particular form is that the outlet for vitiated air is at the apex of the arch, M. Tollet contends that by the adoption of this form the free passage of air is not liable to be checked by any internal angles. His system of construction, moreover, being entirely of iron and stone, brick, or concrete, is not only fire-proof, but is said to present on the inside impervious surfaces, which afford no harbor for any kind of disease germs. The special characteristics (apart from the form of construction) of the hospitals erected on this system, and the feature that has probably the most important bearing on the well-being of the patients, are the way in which the wards are isolated one from the other, and the perfect classification of diseases of which this arrangement admits.—KEITH DOWNES YOUNG, F.R.I.B.A., in *Am. Jour. of Med. Sciences.*

The search after a universal remedy will prove as futile in social diseases as in bodily ailments.

OUR QUESTION-DRAWER—THE COST OF CRIME.

We constantly receive letters containing requests for information on all sorts of subjects connected with charitable and correctional work, some of which would require the writing of a book to answer; some can not be answered without the most laborious investigation; and some are unanswerable. The repetition of the request for "statistics on convict labor," "statistics on crime and intemperance," or "statistics on crime and education" becomes at times monotonous. We endeavor to reply courteously to all our correspondents, but often think of the clergyman who announced to his congregation that he had received an anonymous letter, but that he made it an invariable rule not to read any such letter, unless it contained a bank-note. It is a pleasure to give information, when you have it at hand, or to refer one to the source where it can be procured, if you know of any. But to a busy man the interruption of other work occasioned by too many of these letters just at the inopportune moment is a trifle exasperating. Once we came very near losing our temper, and wrote to a lady for whom we really felt much esteem that she seemed to look upon a statistician as if he were an apple-tree, made to be shaken. Probably the driest and most laborious of all occupations is the gathering and collating of statistics; and the hapless slave who labors at this particular form of treadmill realizes, as no one else can, how imperfect all statistical tables must be; how inadequate the information contained in them; how impossible it is to secure completeness and uniformity in the data from which they are constructed.

We propose, now that we have a means of communicating with our friends through the RECORD, and so throwing off a part of this load, to give our subscribers an opportunity to aid us by suggestions; and when we find on our desk a communication which it is beyond our capacity to answer satisfactorily, we shall let them have it. In pursuance of this resolution, we submit, this month, the two following inquiries:

"Can you give me a summary of the rules governing the punishments inflicted in prisons, reformatories, and other such institutions throughout the world?"

"What is the cost of crime to the body politic, including every item—police, judiciary, and incarceration?"

We wrote to the gentleman who propounded the first of these questions (who is an officer of a reformatory), that the existence, in any institution, of unusual, harsh, or frequent punishments, is *primâ-facie* evidence of incompetency in the superintendent or warden.

As to the second, it is difficult to form any reasonably approximate estimate of the cost of crime. The cost of maintenance of prisoners may be assumed to average about $200 a year, each; and at this figure, the cost of keeping 80,000 inmates of prisons of all grades, including with them the juvenile reformatories, would be $16,000,000. The number of federal and State courts or judges having trial jurisdiction in criminal cases is nearly or quite 2,000, by actual count; this does not include municipal and police courts, nor justices of the peace, of whom there are perhaps 80,000, the large majority of whom possess limited powers in the direction of trials of misdemeanors. In some of the southern States, justices try felonies, and in a number of States they can pronounce sentence where the accused enters a plea of guilty. Anybody can guess for himself what it costs to maintains this machinery of justice for salaries, arrests, juries, witnesses, etc. We give it up. Neither do we know how much of the cost of courts is chargeable to criminal and how much to civil procedure. There are comparatively few courts of exclusively criminal jurisdiction. Finally, as to the cost of our police system,* we can only say that the unpublished census tables in possession of the Sectretary of the Interior, at Washington, to which we have not access, contain data for a tolerably accurate estimate of the cost of city police. But to this must be added the cost of constables in towns, and, if the cost of marshals is not included with the courts, that must be added also, to say nothing of the cost of keeping up the sheriffs, with their deputies, in the several counties. Put these various items together, and the aggregate, on any basis of computation, will be enormous.

The magnitude of the crime question has not dawned upon the average American citizen. To enlighten the public with regard to it, is one of the specific objects in view in the establishment of this journal; and whoever believes that it is a work which needs to be done, and that this is the way to do it, ought certainly to give us at least moral support in the undertaking. We do not want pecuniary contributions, such as are sometimes given to political papers; but we do want subscribers, even if our subscribers do not always find time or have the inclination to read us. If sustained, we shall, sooner or later, succeed in getting the ear of the people.

* The cost of the police system is not necessarily a part of crime, since the work of the police department is chiefly preventive and consists in the maintenance of public order.

VAUX ON PUNISHMENT AND PREVENTION.

Mr. Richard Vaux, president of the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylyania, contributed an article for the International Prison Congress at Rome, which has been handsomely printed in French and English, in which the general question of the prevention and punishment of crime is vigorously treated. He holds that sociology and penology are indissolubly linked together and that crime can not be profitably studied apart from all that gives it existence, form, and vitality. It is a growth within a larger growth of which it forms a part, and it presents problems for solution which are not the same in different nations or at different historical epochs. Its prevention is more important than its punishment. Criminals may be broadly divided into two great groups, of which one is stupid, the other aggressive; the line which separates the two is that which marks the distinction between capacity and incapacity for self-support. In dealing with crime and criminals, we must distinguish also between penalty and punishment: simple imprisonment is a legal penalty, but it is not punishment, a word which Mr. Vaux employs as synonymous with what other writers call treatment. The treatment of a convict which fails to take into account his antecedents, opportunities, associations, habits, and mode of life, is unphilosophical and futile. Routine treatment and treatment in the mass are absurd. Compulsory labor in prison, for profit, is simple slavery. The congregation of convicts in association tends to consolidate the special crime-class, which it should be our aim to disorganize and scatter; while such association creates an atmosphere unfavorable to penitence and genuine amendment. The only rational system of prison discipline is that of individual treatment, in the light of the ascertained causes which have developed in each the criminal character, and in accordance with his personal nature and susceptibilities. There is no favorite prescription in prison discipline; its elements need to be combined in endlessly varying proportions. Time is not an element of punishment; the term of sentence should end when the prison authorities are satisfactorily assured that the prisoner acknowledges, and proves by his conduct, his contrition. He should then be reported by the proper chief executive officer of the prison to the legal tribunal that pronounced sentence against him, and by its order set free. For the right administration of the individual system, competent and trained men are required, who should be encouraged to make this their life-work by promotion and length-of-service pay. Concerning prevention of crime, Mr. Vaux insists that the first essential is to give to the youth of the country such an education as will qualify them to earn their own livelihood. Where the criminal tendency is so strong as to

indicate the propriety of committing a young person of either sex to a juvenile reformatory, for a time, the institution should be a school, with the discipline of a school. "The pupil should be trained, governed, and held, not by coercion but by the stimulus of ambition, to acquire and possess the trade knowledge for any communital life, either mechanical, agricultural, or for mixed societies. The several vocations that are elemental in communities, large or small, should be presented to the pupils for their choice, as their aptitudes suggest, and then their teaching should be directed to qualify them for a useful life of probity and industry."

A VETERAN PRISON REFORMER.

The dean of prison reformers in the world, to-day, is M. Charles Lucas, of Paris, a member of the Institute, now in his eighty-third year, who has, for twenty years past, been totally blind. As early as 1827, he published a book upon the punishment and repression of crime in general and the death penalty in particular. In 1828 and 1829, this was followed by a second, historical in its character, entitled "The Prison Systems of Europe and America," in three volumes, for which he received, from the Academy, the Montyon prize of 6,000 francs. In 1830, he was chosen, by the Chamber of Deputies, inspector-general of prisons; for thirty-five years he was president of the board of inspectors-general, and since then, he has been a member of the superior council of prisons; he has been connected with the prison administration of France, in an official capacity, for fifty-five years. In 1836, he was elected to membership in the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, of which he is now the dean. The year following, that is, in 1837, he gave to the world another work, in three volumes, on the theory of imprisonment, in its threefold aspect, punitive, preventive, and reformatory. In his old age, he has just published a book on the abnormal state of repression, with respect to capital offenses, and the remedy.

M. Lucas rejects that view of imprisonment which regards exclusively, or even primarily, the reformation of the prisoner; the repression of crime is, in his opinion, of greater importance to society than the reclamation of the individual. He is opposed to capital punishment, and believes that, with the advance of civilization, its abolition will ensue, not as the result of any philosophical system or individual initiative, but in consequence of the gradual acceptance of the principles of the Christian religion, which has revealed to mankind the immense horizon of the legitimate and benevolent aspirations of civilization for humanitarian progress. He contributed to the International Prison Congress the following sentiment: "There are, in the history of prison reform, two opposite policies discoverable, of which I have called one the policy of riddance (*politique de débarras*), and the other a civilizing policy (*politique civilisatrice*). What is to be most desired in this movement is that we may no longer recur to the doleful and ruinous expedients of the former, but that henceforth we may be guided by the theoretic conclusions, the practical methods, and the rational conditions of the latter."

He who would rest, must work.

The criminal has rights, and chiefly the right of reformation.

Children with an industrial education are far less likely to fall into vice.

To treat men as if they were better than they are, is the surest way to make them better.

Dr. Bruce Thompson (quoted by Dr. Despine) "after his long experience, comes to the conclusion that the inmates of prisons and of lunatic asylums have so many points of resemblance, that it is often impossible to fix the boundaries between them; that the principal study of a prison physician ought to be the mental state of the prisoners; that the diseases or causes of death in prisons depend very much on the nervous system; and that the treatment of crime should be made a branch of psychology."

CRIME AND REMORSE.

The editor of *Studi Senesi*, a review published by the University of Sienna, has printed an important article on the subject of remorse among criminals. Where there is no repugnance to crime in advance, he contends that there is no remorse afterward, and this position he sustains by direct and indirect proofs, the cumulative force of which it is hard to resist. We must begin with the definition of the word: how is genuine remorse to be distinguished from its counterfeit? M. Ferri thinks that true repentance follows immediately, upon the commission of crime; that it does not depend upon the effect of the crime committed upon the well-being of him who commits it; that it does not cease nor even immediately diminish, when he is acquitted or condemned to a light punishment; that the criminal who is truly penitent thinks of his victim, rather than of himself, and earnestly desires to make reparation for the wrong which he has done him; that his heart is softened towards others, but embittered against himself. The presence of these signs of repentance indicates that their subject is not an habitual, hardened offender; in the typical criminal they are wholly absent.

M. Ferri has studied the criminal character in the two prisons of Pesaro and Castelfranco, where he finds that 42 per cent. of felons and 21 per cent. of misdemeanants refuse to acknowledge their guilt, and those who deny it most stoutly and pretend to deplore their fate are most given to foolish jesting, the moment that the subject of conversation is changed. As a rule, convicts do not concern themselves with the injuries which they have inflicted upon others; when they have served out their term of imprisonment, they consider their debt to society discharged. In France, for instance, in the year 1874, out of $191,431.20 allowed to the inmates of prisons as their share of the money received for their labor, they expended on themselves personally $191,431.20, on their families $14,302.20, and the amount repaid to those whom they had robbed was only $70.80. Another striking illustration of their nature is found in the exuberant demonstrations of joy, which they often are unable to restrain, when their punishment is lighter than they had supposed that it would be. On the other hand, they complain loudly of what they regard as excessive severity on the part of the court, and adduce the most trifling and irrelevant circumstances in extenuation of their fault. Equally striking is the absence of aversion to prison life; many of them appear to be entirely contented with it. Dr. Lombroso, in a work published by him, cites a song which he has heard sung by prisoners in Italy: *

> Carcere, vita mia, cara felice!
> Lo starmi entro di te come mi piace.
> Si spicchi il capo a chi mal ne dice,
> O pensa che fa perdere la pace,
> Qua sol trovi i fratelli e quagli amici
> Denari, ben mangiare e allegra pace.

Indifference to repeated convictions is the mark of an indurated thief; he laughs when asked how often he has been in prison, and affects not to remember with precision the number of times. He laughs, also, when asked to relate the circumstances of his crime, or proceeds to blacken the character of the man whom he has wronged.

Among the positive proofs of absence of the moral sense in criminals may be reckoned the satisfaction which they express in a crime consummated, their disappointment when the injury done has not been so complete as they had intended, their hilarity at all times, and above all their pride in their career and ignorance of the nature of the sentiment which crime inspires in an honest, upright man. Said one, "I feel remorse for the future"; another, "I feel it when I am in prison, but not otherwise"; a third, "when I am out of money"; a fourth, "what 's the use of it?" "Remorse!" said another, "I don't know what you mean."

The statistics which M. Ferri gives, drawn from his notes of 698 conversations with inmates of the prisons which we have named, are interteresting, but we have not space for them. His general conclusion is, that unmistakable grief for crimes committed is so rare, that not more than one in a hundred manifests it, in prison; and not more than three or three and a half per cent. express any contrition whatever for what they have done, after sentence has once been pronounced upon them.

Protection is a higher word than prevention, as prevention is higher than punishment.—T. L. ELIOT.

PATHOLOGICAL FOOTPRINTS.—M. M. Giles de la Tourette and A. Londe, in order to determine the difference between the manner of walking characteristic of healthy people and that of those suffering from nervous diseases, have adopted the following method: A large sheet of wall-paper is laid on the floor, and a longitudinal line marked in the middle. The feet of the person experimented upon are marked with rouge. The impressions are reduced in size, by photography. The following conclusions were drawn from the study of patients with bilateral and unilateral lesions, from the onset of the affection until the end; the pathological step is more regular than that of a subject in a normal condition, both in length and in the lateral separation of the feet, also in respect of the angle formed by the opening of the feet.—*Brit. Med. Journal.*

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* Dear, sweet prison, thou art my life! With what delight I inhabit thee! Hang the man who speaks ill of thee or thinks that happiness is not to be found here, where I have brothers, friends, money, excellent fare, and perfect rest.

SINGLE-HAND ALPHABET.

The one-hand alphabet in general use among the deaf and dumb, which we present to our readers, is taken from the January number of the *Annals*, and has been re-arranged and reduced in size for the RECORD. It differs in no respect from the ordinary representations of it, except that it gives the front view of the hand instead of a side view, and therefore shows better the actual appearance of the letters to the person with whom one is conversing. It was engraved for the *Annals* from photographs through the liberality of Dr. A. Graham Bell. With 35,000 or 40,000 deaf-mutes in this country, a knowledge of it will be found to be a convenient accomplishment, and for those who have mute relatives or friends it may be said to be indispensable. Readiness in its use is easily acquired, and is worth the little effort that it will be found to cost.

"Poverty is not usually a beggar." Then every dollar given to beggars diminishes by so much the fund that should be consecrated to the worthy poor.

PRONUNCIATION AT SIGHT.

Not only the teachers of the deaf and dumb, but all who teach reading to children in school or at home, might derive profit from a careful perusal of the paper by Miss Alice Worcester, which is printed as an appendix to the report of the Clarke Institution for Deaf Mutes, at Northampton, Mass., for 1885. It is in substance the same as what she said at the convention, in New York, of teachers of articulation. It is a plea for training in the powers of the letters of the alphabet. separately and in combination, rather than a resort to "visible speech" for the deaf, or the use of the word-method. The method of accomplishing this result devised by Miss Worcester herself is fully explained, and her charts are reproduced in the report.

The number of distinct sounds in the English language is about forty. Phonetic spelling, with only twenty-six letters and forty or more sounds to be represented by them, is impossible. Diacritical marks are arbitrary, meaningless and inconsistent. The word-method is cumbrous, and overleads the mind of the learner. Of "visible speech" she says :

> The cause of articulation for the deaf in this country owes much to it —both from the study of vocal physiology to which it has led, and from the fact that it has offered through its students almost the only source of supply for the recent and urgent demand for articulation teachers. I am glad to express here my great personal obligation to it ; and it has been with reluctance that I have gradually come to the belief (after using it for six years, with a large number of classes, and with an earnest purpose to gain from it every advantage for the children), that the use of symbols with the classes of our institutions is a hindrance rather than a help at every point.
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> A hindrance, first, to lip-reading. Not, as has been so often urged against it, because of the time it takes from the lip-reading of words as ordinarily spelled by being taught first ; but for the reason, not enough considered and far more vital, that it leads the pupil to look only for unvarying representatives of the positions he sees, and to expect, also, to find words spelled by a number of letters corresponding to their number of sounds, bringing a long period of confusion later, amid the multitude of spellings among which all his previous ideas must be readjusted. To attain freedom in speech-reading, he must be trained from the first to consider different spellings of the same sound ; he needs to see "silent" letters, and to know that it may be a combination of a number of letters as well as a single letter which represents a given sound.
>
> As to speech, no little undeveloped deaf child ever learned to talk by taking of himself, from his understanding of them, the positions indicated by such symbols. He must be shown how to take them—must be taught, in short, to imitate, as much when they are used, as under any other circumstances. They never create speech ; what actually happens is the exact reverse of this. Their correspondence is explained to positions taken through power thus already acquired in another way, or to actions which are involuntary. Moreover, only the simplest, most evident things about such symbols can be explained to a little child at all. At first, and for a long time, they remain practically arbitrary signs to him. Better, then, that letters, with which sounds thus learned can be just as easily associated, and which will be in daily use throughout all the years of his growing intelligence, should be taught first. If there is value to him in physiological symbols, let it be secured by teaching them when he has such mental development that they can be understood.

We can not spare the space for a full account of Miss Worcester's own method, which includes not merely the teaching of the different powers of individual letters, but the effect of secondary letters upon the pronunciation of those which they modify. The results achieved by her are remarkable, and may be stated mathematically. With the new class of children at the Clarke Institution the past year, the first part of Jacobs' Reader was used a short time daily, during the last few months of the year. Its vocabulary consists of 677 words, 545 of which, she says, should be pronounced at sight by a child familiar with his first year's work, and of the remaining 132, only 64 are exceptions, and directly contradict the rules expressed in the charts ; many of them were, in point of fact, pronounced rightly by the children who used the book, through that instinct of selection curious to watch in deaf children (of whom she speaks) as in hearing children, which seems to come with growing familiarity with print.

Scattered seed increases ; hoarded seed dies.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR THE DEAF.

There is so much good sense and good feeling in the special report on manual training in institutions for the deaf and dumb, submitted to the trustees of the Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes by the principal, Mr. George Greenberger, that we reprint it without alteration or abridgment :

The introduction of industrial training, as a part of the general system of public education, has of late been strongly advocated by many prominent educators of this country and of Europe.

Although much tempted, I shall not enter into a discussion of the causes which have led to this movement, and of the various schemes that have been proposed, here and abroad, to solve the problem. The subject has been exhaustively treated in a volume of 390 pages by Mr. Arthur McArthur, entitled "Education in its Relation to Manual Industry," published by D. Appleton & Co. ; in the reports of the Working-Men's School in this city, and of the Manual Training School of the Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri ; also in several pamphlets published by Professor C. M. Woodward, director of the last-named school.

From these writings it may be seen that, although great diversity of opinion still prevails among the advocates of manual training on many points, yet all agree :

First.—That the teaching of particular trades is neither desirable nor practicable in school life. "It is impossible," says Dr. White, who is at the head of a college of science and industry, "for the public school to teach a tithe of its pupils the pursuits or occupations by which they are to earn their living. Of the one hundred and seventy-two occupations classed in the last census of the United States as manufacturers, and mechanical and mining industries, not a score can be taught in a school shop. The teaching of handicrafts in the schools would give nine tenths of the pupils skill which they would never use in after life, or use only incidentally." Instead of teaching any one trade, it is, therefore, proposed to instruct the pupils in certain mechanical principles which underlie all trades, and to give them a proficiency in the use of certain classes of tools which most mechanics employ.

All the simple mechanical powers are six in number ; namely, the lever, wheel and axle, pulley, wedge, inclined plane, and screw. These simple powers are so adjusted as to produce all movements and combinations in all the vast variety of intricate machinery, which men have invented and constructed. What is true of these simple powers, applies with equal force to the tools which men usually employ in their labor. The square, saw, plane, chisel, etc., are fundamental to all wood-working trades ; and the hammer, file, lathe, etc., are the basis of all metal-working trades. It is contended that a knowledge of the simple mechanical powers and a systematic training in the use of these tools will enable the pupil to turn to any kind of business for which he is most fitted, and a very short time will be sufficient to specialize his work in any of the ordinary trades of the mechanic. With such general skill, he will be able to choose among a great variety of occupations, and adopt the one which pleases him best, and which he can exercise to the greatest profit. When he is thrown out of work in one employment, he can turn his general skill and knowledge to account in another.

Second.—The manufacture of articles for sale should not be attempted. "A shop which manufactures for the market," says Professor C. M. Woodward, "and expects a revenue from a sale of its products, is necessarily confined to salable work ; and a systematic and progressive series of lessons is impossible, except at a great cost. If the object of the shop is education, a student should be allowed to discontinue any task or process, the moment he has learned to do it well. If the shop were intended to make money, the students would be kept at work on what they could do best, at the expense of breadth and versatility. In a factory, intellectual life and activity is not aimed at ; its sole object is the production of articles for the market. In a manual training school, every thing should be for the benefit of the boy ; he is the most important thing in the shop ; he is the only article to be put on the market.*

Third.—Simple physical and chemical experiments should be introduced into grammar schools, for the purpose of acquainting pupils, through original observation, with the elements of chemical and physical science and their practical application in manual pursuits. Education in the rudiments of science is a requirement and almost a necessity in the present conditions. There are but few pursuits above that of common labor, which do not require, for their successful prosecution, information of this character ; for science is now connected with all branches of productive industry. Chemistry is connected with many arts, and physics is connected with mechanical industry of every desription.

Fourth.—Drawing should be taught, not as an accomplishment, but as a language for the graphic presentation of the facts of form and of matter ; for the representation of the appearance of objects ; and also as a means of developing taste in industrial design. It is not the duty of an elementary school to turn out artists. That should not be attempted, nor can it be expected. What should be aimed at is to enable the pupil to make and understand a sketch or plan in the line of his trade ; to work from it without blundering, without waste of time or material ; and to carry out the design with taste and beauty. The study of mechanical drawing lies at the basis of all instructive art, and there are few industries in which it can be dispensed with. The building of the humblest dwelling is according to plans and specifications. Its boards, beams, roofs, and floors are sawed, tongued, and made to fit each other, according to drafts. The mechanic who makes the simplest article, like a hoe, a spade, or a shovel, as well as he who builds a steam-engine, is dependent on his practical designs.

Besides the instruction in mechanical drawing, attention should be given to ornamental drawing, for the object of decoration is almost corresponding in importance to that of form. Most of the articles that are manufactured have to be made beautiful as well as useful. It must also be considered that an acquaintance with the principles of designing ornamental figures will open a large and remunerative field of labor to those who have natural talents in this regard. The manufacture of laces, brocaded silks, carpets, wall-paper, and colored glass with beautiful patterned designs ; also fresco painting, bronze-work, pottery, wood-carving, etc,, etc., are rapidly spreading among the industrial arts of America. Good draughtsmen are therefore always in demand, and earn high wages.

These four points constitute the main features of the system of industrial training which it is proposed to introduce in the common schools.

There seems to be every reason why the same plan should be adopted in this institution. The arguments that are used against the teaching of trades in the public schools, apply with equal force to an institution like ours. With very few exceptions, our pupils have to earn a living by manual labor of some kind, after leaving school. Although their infirmities unfit them for many occupations, there is still a great variety of industries open to them. Such general training as has been outlined in the foregoing paragraphs, will thenceforth best prepare them for the positions which they are to occupy in after life. It is not considered to be the duty of the public schools to turn out artists and mechanics, so that every boy may be able to step into a remunerative situation immediately on leaving school. And there is no reason why that should be expected of an institution for the deaf. If we train our pupils so as to find places as apprentices when they leave us, and to learn trades in the same way as hearing youth have to acquire them, we have done our whole duty. Nobody should ask others to help him, if he can help himself.

That our pupils do not depend upon learning trades in school at public expense, is fully demonstrated by our experience in the past. The institution has been in existence nineteen years and has turned out hundreds of pupils. All of them have found places, and although some are getting along better than others, yet on the whole they are all doing well. Many of them have been in the same position for years and are prized by their employers as able and skilful mechanics.

It must be admitted that deaf-mutes sometimes find it very difficult to obtain situations, not so much on account of their infirmities as on account of the wrong ideas which people have about them, and of the prejudice which still exists agsinst them. Many tradesmen will not take a deaf apprentice, no matter how smart he may be. This prejudice is entirely unfounded, for wherever our pupils have been afforded an opportunity of learning a trade, they have almost without exception soon adapted themselves to circumstances and have had no difficulty in communicating with their foreman and fellow workmen. Although I feel loath to criticise what others believe and what they do, I am constrained to remark here that those who will advocate the theory that deaf-mutes are fit for the simplest occupations only, such as tailoring, shoe-making, etc., and have to learn these trades in the institution, are in a great measure responsible for the prejudice that still exists in the public mind against our pupils, because they help to keep it alive. When this tradition, which has been handed down from the dark ages, shall have died out, there will be at least ten deaf-mute artists, art-workers and skilled mechanics for every one that is to be found at present. What strange inconsistency there is in considering deaf-mutes capable of studying the classics and sciences, and still adhering to the false belief that, as a class, they are only fit to become cobblers, tailors, and the like.

After giving all due consideration to the subject, I must respectfully urge the introduction in this institution of such technical instruction as has of late been demanded for the pupils of the public schools. The facilities which we have hitherto offered to our pupils for acquiring a knowledge of the elements of physics and of free-hand drawing are quite ample. We only have to add instruction in mechanical drawing and in the use of the most common wood-working and iron-working tools. Both these branches should be taught by some teacher who is a graduate of the Stevens Institute in Hoboken, New Jersey, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in Boston, or some similar school. The beginning might be made on a small scale. A dozen benches, with the necessary tools, such as are in use in the Working-Men's School, in this city, would be sufficient for our purposes at present, and could be purchased for a few hundred dollars. After some time, a number of small forges and iron-working tools, similar to those employed in the workshops of the College of the City of New York, and some simple machinery might be added.

I hope that these recommendations will be adopted at an early date.

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* The application of this remark to labor in prisons, also, will be apparent to all who believe that the great need of the criminal is education, and that prisons should be organized on an educational basis. The principle enunciated is the condemnation both of unproductive labor in prisons, and of the contract system of labor, as practised in the United States.

Short imprisonments are utterly useless.—LORD BROUGHAM.

ALEXANDER MACONOCHIE.

In the year 1836 Sir John Franklin was appointed Governor of Van Diemen's Land. He invited Captain Alexander Maconochie, who had been an officer in the British navy, and was then about fifty years old, to accompany him as his private secretary. In 1837, while acting in this capacity, Maconochie conceived the idea of the "Mark System" of prison discipline, the peculiarity of which, as it lay in his mind, was that sentences for crime should be imposed in the form of marks, or an artificial debt, of which the prisoner should relieve himself by his own conduct and industry in prison. He had had no previous acquaintance with penal matters, but had been requested by the Prison Discipline Society of London to pay special attention to the effects of transportation, as they might come under his observation, which he did; and the reflections forced upon him by what he saw assumed the form of a scheme for the betterment of the condition and character of the unfortunate victims of a system which England has since been compelled to discard, and which must be abandoned, sooner or later, by every nation which resorts to it. He returned to England and laid the outlines of his plan before the Transportation Committee of the House of Commons, of which Sir William Molesworth was chairman, which gave it a qualified approval. Shortly afterwards he was appointed Governor of Norfolk Island, where he arrived March 6, 1840. For four years he remained in charge of the island: he found it a hell, but left it a fairly well-ordered community. From 1849 to 1851 he was governor of Birmingham jail. He died in 1860.

The debt which England and the world owe to this man has never been fully recognized and can never be repaid. Dr. E. C. Wines says of him that he is "the profoundest, the most original, and at the same time the most practical, of thinkers on the penitentiary question." From various pamphlets issued by him in defence of his system, which was assailed in a bitter manner by the slaves of precedent and prejudice, we select some sentences here and there, which will give a tolerably fair notion of his spirit and his beliefs. He certainly was a half century at least in advance of his times. We have seen his recommendations accepted in part, and the future will witness a far more general adoption of them than at present, notwithstanding the fact that some portions of his system appear to be unnecessary and impracticable. But its main principle, being founded on truth, will endure.

The quotations which follow are the words of a practical prison officer, who built up his theories on his experience in the administration of his office, and exemplified them in his acts. American prison officials will do well to ponder them long and with care.

A most extravagant degree of importance is attached to the mere construction of prisons, and attention is drawn off by this from what is far more important. A good system in a bad prison is far better than a bad system in a good prison. As no one ever heard of the discipline of a regiment fluctuating according to the construction of its barrack, so neither is there any sound reason whatever for that of prisoners being more dependent. Discipline is a science of moral, much more than of material arrangement.

I as much approve of the separate system for short-sentenced prisoners as any one can. I do not approve of it as a form of prolonged imprisonment.

The separate system is the most perfect form of mere coercion that has been devised. Men are utterly helpless in its grasp. They thus make excellent *prisoners*, and those who manage them are enamored of their success with them. But it is scarcely possible to conceive that the most perfect form of bondage, however useful in its place, in the beginning of a course of discipline, can be the best preparation for entire return to liberty.

Like handcuffs and straight waist-coats, separation has a good special application, and as medicine it is excellent for certain phases of moral disease; but it is no more fit for habitual diet than would be senna or ipecacuanha.

It is vain to talk of ignorant, inert and corrupt minds profiting by their own unassisted reflections.

It is alleged that the separate system facilitates the return of prisoners to employment outside, by lessening the chances of their recognition there; and in aid of this property in it, masks have been introduced in many prisons, further to conceal the person. But it is a pure delusion to believe this ever to be successful. Prisoners always know and recognize each other. Besides, is it really desirable or wise thus to try to qualify men to go forth into the world with a lie in their mouths?

It is much easier to influence numbers together, than the individuals of whom they are composed; and when moved, they will go much farther—they assist each other and beget a common enthusiasm. There is also a specific tendency in numbers towards right feeling. On Norfolk Island, I could have done nothing with each prisoner separately; the best of them would have remained only dogged under my representations.

Penal treatment ought not to be social, unless reform be made the first object; associations for punishment only are always injurious.

The truth is, that we do not as yet sufficiently value the object of reform in our prisons, and hence our failure in obtaining it.

By right arrangements, and with God's blessing, we may approach indefinitely near to the reform of *all* our criminals.

Once let officers understand that their business is to reform their fellowmen, not merely to punish them, and they would soon become inventive as to specific methods. But the principle must be established first.

To seek well and wisely the reform of our criminals, we must inflict on them all the suffering that is really necessary for example, and realize that we are not entitled to do more—we may not do evil that good may come.

Multiplied and unnatural restrictions lead to multiplied and unnatural transgressions.

Vindictive personal punishments corrupt far beyond their immediate sphere. They appeal to the craven feelings of men, and they much more generally stimulate their ferocious and sensual ones.

What do manly, though degraded, men care for chains, stripes, yellow jackets, hunger, dark cells, etc? They despise even more than they hate them; and a fruitful source of crime where they prevail is the coveted honor of braving them.

It is only very rarely that corporal punishment operates beneficially. If frequently repeated it excites sympathy, kindles resentment, and not seldom provokes retaliation or the imitation by others of the offence for which it is inflicted.

Fear is among the most active impulses of the human mind. We all in a degree daily experience it. It ought therefore to have a place, and even a large place, in every agency directed to repress crime. Yet, if we consider it dispassionately and philosophically, there is not an impulse of any other kind whatever, whether affection, hatred, emulation, desire, covetousness, or what it may, that does not habitually overcome fear, even in the most timid.

I would rather prisoners were insolent to me than cringing.

Really to check crime, the true policy is to subordinate every thing in the management of prisons to the moral and industrial reform of their inmates. For such purposes we must furnish motives, religious and other, for their guidance, and not merely issue commands. The special aim of those immediately over them should be to try to gain, direct, and (if possible) permanently elevate their wills, and not merely temporarily constrain and exercise their obedience.

It is the will that is to be gained, not the body only.

The direct application of force to the human mind always deteriorates it.

Mind can only be gained by appealing to mind.

The mark system is A SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

Penitence, good resolutions, and moral and religious principle are excellent foundations. They are indeed the only sure foundations, and if once really instinct with life, they will ascend and pervade whatever superstructure is reared upon them. But where their dictates have been originally weak, or, it may be, systematically disregarded altogether (as is the case with but too many, especially of the early criminal), it seems as idle to expect that their mere theoretical inculcation late in life, however enforced by brief though severe suffering, will be sufficient to make them dominant guides of future conduct, as it would be to hope so to teach a trade. Moral lessons, to be taught profitably, require a field of progressive experimental application, just as engineering does.

We are probably all of us apt to appropriate the promises of Scripture, without regard to the conditions on which alone they are held out, and from what I have seen of prisoners I believe that in their class this delusion is carried to an extreme. Their consciences become so seared by long addiction to their several vices, and so reconciled to them by their being for the most part their only means of support, that they cease to look on them as bars to the divine favor.

The religious instruction and exhortation given in our prisons, it may be feared, is generally productive of very little benefit. Being given for the first time late in life, the character has already gained an opposite bias, and this in the circumstances having been necessarily to evil, the same effect of early impressions is equally apparent, but now operating in the opposite direction. In this state it is nearly impossible to produce any salutary religious effect. The devotional sentiments are become comparatively torpid; they may still be partially excited, but only occasionally; and the appeals made to them, being received with reluctance,

are sought to be escaped from either by a studied levity or neglect. An amount of direct scepticism, or rather infidelity, is generated among old criminals, and readily caught by the younger, which does not always appear in their external demeanor, but by close observers may be detected even in the best of them, and alone explains what otherwise appears inexplicable in the worst. It accounts, for example, for the persistence of this class in evil courses without compunction, in spite of much better counsel and apparent occasional sense of it. It persuades them at length to regard crime as a mere profession, a means of livelihood, in which it is their pride to acquire proficiency. It accounts for the audacity with which they frequently make the most solemn appeals to Heaven, even on trifling occasions, in support of flagrant falsehoods. After long lives of the most desperate wickedness it supports many on their deathbeds, which even in extreme cases are usually very tranquil. And what is perhaps worse than all, it reconciles them with little scruple to that organized hypocrisy, suggested generally by the prospect of immediate advantage to be derived from it, which is not unfrequently seen among old criminals, and is considered by many having charge of them as a hopeful sign, deserving the reward of that success which is its immediate object—but which, in truth, in any excess, or long sustained, or sanctimoniously demonstrative, is among the most hardening and corrupting states of mind to which they can be brought.

After a long life of carelessness, profligacy, and even aggravated crime, the conscience, when it has been *early* instructed and trained, is always found to respond to appeals subsequently made to it; and if these call up also other early associations with days of comparative innocence and happiness, and the whole are contrasted with the sad issue, the emotion produced is often even painful to witness, contrasts strongly with the apparent character and immediate history of the man, and affords strong evidence of his sincere immediate repentance and purpose of future amendment and reform.

"In the sweat of thy brow thou shalt eat thy bread," was the primary denunciation against crime.

As an improving and also deterring process, the value of actual hard labor is not in general nearly enough estimated. It overcomes the habits of indolence and self-indulgence which chiefly foster crime.

Men who have fairly entered on a life of crime dislike continuous labor. Their habit is to rely on the results of occasional effort instead. The spirit of the gambler grows up in them; it reconciles them to many hardships and vicissitudes; and the slow, steady, but constantly sustained efforts imposed by the mark system are at once the severest punishment of this temper and its best cure.

The duration of sentences should be measured by labor and good conduct combined, with a minimum of time, but no maximum—instead of as now, by time only. The purpose of this is to make the man's liberation, when he is once convicted of a felony, depend upon the subsequent character and conduct evinced by him, rather than on the quality of his original offence. It is in the first that society really has an interest, and on which depends the security with which he may be again released. The last is an immutable fact. Amidst the varieties of constitution and temptation, we can rarely estimate its real turpitude. When we can we are still unable to balance against it a due proportion of pain. And no amount of this last can either recall or atone for it; or in any perceptible degree (as experience shows) prevent its recurrence.

When a man keeps the key of his own prison, he is soon persuaded to fit it to the lock.

The mark system sets little store by either hope or fear. Both are uncertain motives, varying from hour to hour in their influence on the human mind. This system desires to substitute certainty in their place.

A man incurring punishment should, as when he falls into a pit or well, or any other misfortune in life, be required to struggle out of it, and not be allowed simply to *endure* out of it.

Punishment should be severe but short, and it should melt into probation, and that again into entire freedom, as gradually as possible.

Imposition, on a great scale, under the mark system, is impossible.

Many more criminals than is usually supposed have been the victims of circumstances, with but little more original taint than necessarily proceeds from weakness and facility. In them, accordingly, improved circumstances will always bring out the better feelings, as other circumstances bring out the worst. They all understand the principle of reformatory as distinguished from vindictive treatment, and even when unable or unwilling to rise through it, they are yet for the most part grateful for it.

The employment of prisoners as sub-officers, where the object is improvement, is excellent; where, on the contrary, it is coercion, nothing can be worse.

In grave cases, I should have been glad to have had a jury, preferably of prisoners, for it is always desirable to interest in the administration of the laws those subjected to them.

A great number of recommittals demonstrates a great deficiency of reformatory agency in the treatment to which prisoners are subjected when first committed.

I would fine prison officers for all recommitments to their custody within, say, six months of previous discharge.

Briefly, the head of an establishment under the mark system must propose to himself a purely benevolent object, and repudiate every thing that is merely vindictive, or what is called exemplary. Whenever he is in doubt, he must refer to the ordinary operations of society as a guide; and, in particular, he must study by every means to create a representation of its social ties, by diffusing common interests and responsibilities, extending and subdividing these as, on experience, he shall find best. He must set no store by minute regulation, and sedulously avoid multiplying conventional offences. He must also encourage men to love labor, by assisting it with all usual aids and appliances, so as to make it productive; there can not be a greater mistake than to make penal labor necessarily rude and ineffective. His object must thus be to persuade, not coerce; to create the good will; and to reward, not command, the good deed. It is the living soul that he must seek to win, not the inert and obedient body; for precisely as he attaches value to the latter, he will probably be indifferent about the former; and *vice versâ*, as he comprehends the worth of the former, he will appreciate at only its just value the minutely scrupulous eye-service which is often rendered by the worst men. Of his general success on these principles he need entertain no doubt, and the more confident he is on this head the better, since he will be the more inventive in order to justify his expectations.

CONNOISSEUR AND CONFESSOR.

If we are to believe the jurists, by whose words the students everywhere swear, Punishment is the Right of Wrong. This definition, by its simplicity, recommends itself to the logicians at their desks; but I doubt whether the Founder of the Faith would have been content with it. He did not declare that to be stoned was the right of the guilty woman: on the contrary, he showed that beneath the smooth logical surface of the legal code lies a deeper principle, which reveals itself only to an eye that can see and a heart that can feel. To such an eye and heart it is soon plain that nearly every wrong punished, in order that it may have its right, is a wrong at second, third, or a hundredth hand, so that the punishment inflicted rarely reaches the culprit who most deserves it. The most upright judge, therefore, with or against his consent, resembles a sanguinary general, who orders every tenth man shot, not because he is more guilty than the rest, but because he is the tenth. But this is not apparent to the logician, who smiles with complacency, if he does not come into conflict with his Principle of Identity and Principle of Contradiction. Nor is it apparent to the judge, who has before him an isolated fact, torn from its connections, and who must pronounce sentence without having all the parts in his hand, not to speak of the visible and invisible threads on which these parts are necessarily strung. Both the judge and the logician are like the crowd, which judges a picture solely by its effect; while the connoisseur knows how it came into existence, what colors the painter had upon his palette, how he blended them, what difficulties he encountered, how he surmounted them, or why he failed of his aim. As none but an artist can be a real critic of art, even so men's actions can only be judged by those to whom nothing human is alien, because they have experienced in themselves and in their brethren the whole wretchedness of humanity. For this, as I have said, are required a feeling heart and a seeing eye, with ample opportunity for training both.

Who has a better opportunity, for this purpose, than the superintendent of a prison? He and the prison physician, when their views coincide, and they strive together for a common end, alone can know what the most conscientious judge has no means of finding out, how the man whom mankind has thrust out, for a time or forever, became what he is; how, born as he was, and of such parents, brought up in such associations, he acted thus and not otherwise, at such a critical moment. Then, when the superintendent, who is of necessity the confessor of the criminal, has learned his life in all its details, and the physician has discovered the defects from which, for years, he has suffered, when they consult upon his case, the only question is, whether he can be helped, and how. In the so-called prison, they see, respectively, but a reformatory and an infirmary. For—and this is a point of infinite importance, which physiology will yet compel jurisprudence to acknowledge—nearly all prisoners are diseased, in the ordinary acceptation of the word; nearly all suffer from organic defects, and, in almost every case, the brain lacks the proper volume which a normal man needs for normal activity, for a life which shall not bring him into conflict with the law.—*Hammer and Anvil*, by SPIELHAGEN.

Mr. W. H. Channing, at the organization of the New York Prison Association, in 1844, said: "The wrong-doer must be treated, and must see that he is treated, from the moment of his arrest until his release, with humanity. He must be convinced that the interests of his fellowmen demand his exclusion from society *until his character is amended;* and that the end of his imprisonment is to enable him to reform, and thus to atone for past injuries by future usefulness."

The four Vanderbilt brothers have contributed $250,000 to the College of Physicians and Surgeons, for the erection and endowment of the Vanderbilt Clinic, to adjoin the Sloane Maternity Hospital, Tenth Avenue and Sixtieth Street, New York.

PRUSSIAN PRISON STATISTICS.

THE latest statistics of the Prussian prisons that we have seen are taken from the report of the Minister of the Interior for the year ending March 31, 1884. We give a few of the principal figures. The following table shows the movement of population :

	Total.	Men.	Women.
In prison, April 1, 1883 . . .	30,142	25,811	4,331
Committed during the year . .	100,864	75,442	25,422
Total number in prison	131,006	101,253	29,753
Discharged or died	101,889	76,329	25,560
Remaining, March 31, 1884 . .	29,117	24,924	4,193

The total number of days' imprisonment was 10,645,782, or a daily average of 29,087 prisoners—about half the number in the United States.

The number of officers and employés was 1,992, to which must be added the chaplains, teachers, and physicians, who bring up the total to 2,233, or about one to every thirteen inmates.

The amount of food consumed was equivalent, in the aggregate, to 14,068,048 pounds of bread and 1,491,416 pounds of meat, or very nearly one and a half pounds of bread and two and a quarter ounces of meat to each prisoner per day. Of the total amount consumed, 13,376,710 pounds of bread and 1,361,453 pounds of meat were furnished by the government ; the remainder was purchased by the prisoners, and paid for out of their peculium. They were also permitted to purchase and consume 18,295 gallons of beer.

Sick prisoners are given a slightly better diet than is provided for those who are in health. The daily cost of provisions for the sick was about eleven cents per day, and for the well about seven and two thirds cents. These figures are per capita.

The number of prisoners employed at productive labor or in the discharge of prison duties was 25,713. This, we take it, was the average number. The principal industries were : For men, cigar-making, weaving, shoe-making, carpenter and cabinet work, the manufacture of paper boxes, brush-making, basket-making, making straw mats, and tailoring ; for women, sewing and embroidery, knitting, weaving carpets, and the manufacture of cigars. Machinery was in use as an adjunct to prison labor in twelve of the prisons ; in the rest it was all hand work. The earnings were $708,493.27 gross, or $610,030.94 net, of which $119,942.25 was set apart as the peculium of the convicts, or their share of the proceeds of their labor.

The number who received secular instruction in the prison schools was 9,569, of whom 8,042 were men and 1,527 women ; in addition, special instruction in singing was given to 3,948 men and 722 women outside of the schools.

Religious instruction was provided for 17,433 prisoners. Protestant services were attended by 8,525, Roman Catholic by 8,961, and Jewish by 397.

The prison libraries contain in an aggregate of 205,879 volumes.

The average number of prisoners in strictly cellular confinement was 4,667, namely, 4,237 men and 440 women ; the total number during the year was 13,017 men and 1,378 women so confined. The government has provided 5,112 cells for isolation both by day and night, and 4,009 for isolation by night only ; the latter are mostly of iron.

Disciplinary punishments were inflicted on 19,566 prisoners during the year—16,432 men and 3,134 women. Forty per cent. of the entire number were guilty of some infraction of rules ; of these offences 5,719 were of the nature of direct disobedience and rebellion, while 10,277 were violations of rules relating to work, and 32,535 were of minor importance. The punishments inflicted were : deprivation of privileges, 25,889 ; dungeon, 22,401 ; *latten-arrests* (confinement in a dungeon with wooden strips nailed across the floor), 105 ; corporeal chastisement, 136. In addition, 23 were sentenced by the courts for crimes committed while in prison.

The prisoners sent 85,067 letters and received 103,077. They received 16,196 visits from their friends.

The daily average of prisoners who were ill was 1,106, of whom 884 were in hospital and 222 in their usual quarters. The total number who passed through the hospitals was 12,965, and the average duration of their sojourn in the hospital was 25 days.

The deaths were 837, of which 20 were suicides, and 2 accidental. Twelve of the suicides were by prisoners in solitary confinement ; all of them were by men over thirty years of age.

In 27 prisons, 74 prisoners became insane, 56 men and 18 women ; the recoveries from insanity during the year were 11.

The financial statement is as follows : Receipts, $708,745.26 ; expenses, $2,149,258.19 ; deficit, $1,440,512.93.

The following is a classified list of expenses : For wages of employés, $768,970.53 ; office expenses, $17,697.19 ; food, $839,052.07 ; drugs and medicines, $19.773.09 ; clothing, $129,989.85 ; laundry, etc., $32,245.13 ; furniture and stores, $67,377.14 ; heating, $65,763.35 ; lighting, $75,299.52 ; building and repairs, $51,677.13 ; house-cleaning, $3,647.64 ; insurance, $851.69 ; miscellaneous (including religious and secular instruction), $76,913.71.

The number of applications for conditional liberation, under the 23d article of the the penal code, was 390, of which 234 were granted : 14 who had been liberated conditionally were returned to prison for violation of the conditions of their parole.

The law of Prussia recognizes two grades of imprisonment —simple imprisonment and reclusion ; the latter is reserved for criminals of a higher grade. The number of recidivists, of the lower grade, was 11,486, or 45.73 per cent. ; of the higher, it was 6,546, or 81 per cent. The crimes committed by the former class were : Of interest, 6,640, or 80 per cent., and of passion, 1,502, or 20 per cent. ; by the latter, of interest, 13,306, or 52 per cent., and of passion, 11,810, or 47 per cent. The following table shows the duration of the sentences imposed by the courts :

Sentence.	Reclusion.		Simple imprisonment.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
For life	36	16	5	
Fifteen years and upward . .	31	1	33	
Ten to fifteen years	52	3	30	
Five to ten years	530	50	163	7
Three to five years	945	145	434	46
Two to three years	1,301	229	671	88
One to two years	2,650	579	2,053	304
Less than one year	1,334	300		
Six months to one year . . .			3,289	441
Three to six months			3,275	687
Three months and under . .			9,209	4,390

It is suggestive to note that the whole number of life prisoners in Prussia, in 1883–4 was only 57, while the number in the United States, in 1880, as reported in the census, was 1,615 ; and even this figure does not represent the whole of the truth, for there were many who received imprisonment for over 50 years, which is the same as life imprisonment, except in name.

The quinquennial census of the French population will be taken May 30th.

The convention of Instructors of the Deaf and Dumb will meet at Oakland, California, July 15th.

MARYLAND.

The seventeenth anniversary of the Maryland Prisoners' Aid Asscciation was held in the Friends' Meeting-house, Baltimore, on Tuesday evening, April 13th, Goldsborough S. Griffith, president, in the chair. The attendance was very large, and represented clergymen, lawyers, physicians, merchants, and philanthrophists interested in the criminal classes. The annual reports of the president and general agent were read.

The president said that in the last fiscal year the association had given clothing, tools, shoes, and pecuniary aid to 589 discharged prisoners ; had sent home, or where they had the prospect of securing work, 216 ; had furnished 427 meals and 205 lodgings, and secured employment for 117. This was all accomplished with an outlay of about $3,000, raised by voluntary contributions. He emphasized the fact that while there has been an alarming increase in crime in the United States during the last ten years, Maryland stands as an exception, and shows a marked diminution in the number of criminals, notwithstanding the fact that the population of the State has largely increased. This decrease is explained by the wholesome labor in which prisoners are engaged, humane supervision, and the far-reaching influence of the Prisoners' Aid Association over convicts, both during their imprisonment and after their discharge. The great cause of the prison population is intemperance. Mr. Griffith spoke at length and with great force on this subject, and said, among other things, that of 522 prisoners in the penitentiary, at the close of the fiscal year, only one was sent from Caroline county, where there is a prohibitory law. He also alluded to the disciplinary and sanitary reforms effected in the county jails and almshouses, and the building of new structures in place of dilapidated and insecure ones, resulting from his periodical visits. The report was interspersed with many telling instances of cases in which bad men and women had been thoroughly reformed by the timely and judicious assistance of this society. The Prisoners' Aid Association secured the passage of several important bills by the legislature. One relates to the suppression of indecent showbills and immoral pictures ; another prohibits the employment of young girls as sitters in concert saloons ; a third forbids the receiving or detaining of children in the county almshouses, and makes it obligatory upon the commissioners of the poor to secure homes for all such children under sixteen years of age.

The president's report was followed by that of the general agent, Rev. Louis F. Zinkhan. The latter spoke of the insidious causes of crime, the relation of crime and pauperism to each other and their influence upon society, and the possibilities in reclaiming the fallen. He said that the association aims to do two things : (1) To save the criminal from his besetting sins, and thoroughly reform him by every method in its power ; (2) to throw safeguards around society, so that life, property, and good morals may be more secure. He gave a detailed account of his daily work amorg prisoners, and of his methods in dealing with and providing for them. He mentioned the religious services, the distribution of wholesome literature, his personal work at the cells, the investigation of cases, his meeting all prisoners discharged from the penitentiary, and giving them counsel, clothing, and work, or sending them home ; his visits to the unfortunate and destitute families of prisoners, and the disposition made of inebriates, sick prisoners, and the insane. He also related numerous touching incidents.

After the reading of the reports, stirring addresses were made by Rev. Wayland D. Ball and Rev. F. M. Ellis, D.D.

Dr. Francis X. Dercum, Pathologist to the Norristown (Penn.) State Hospital for the Insane has reported to the Pathological Society of Phila. the autopsy of a female dement, in whose brain was found hard calcareous patches scattered through the substance of the hemispheres, which varied in size from a quarter of an inch or more in diameter to scarcely appreciable sand-like fragments.

LEPOGLAVA.

At the January meeting of the Société des Prisons, in Paris, M. Rivière gave an interesting account of the great central prison at Lepoglava, in Croatian Hungary, which has a total population of 783 convicts, who are classified in three grades. The first grade is organized on the strictly cellular plan ; the cells are of iron, but the furniture of wood ; the name and description of each convict are inscribed upon his cell-door. In the second grade, the prisoners work in association. Before M. Tauffer was appointed director of the prison, it was in the hands of a lessee. M. Tauffer organized the labor of the prison on state account, at an expenditure of only 5,000 florins ; it now brings in an income of 25,000 or 26,000 florins, but we do not understand that it is self-supporting. Every prisoner is taught a trade and qualified to earn his own living, at his discharge, when the tools used by him while in prison are presented to him. Lepoglava is not situated on any railroad, nor on any navigable stream. M. Rivière attributes its success to the banishment of the contractor, who, he says, "is a speculator in crime," and the substitution of the public-account system ; together with the repudiation of the principle that a prison is a commercial enterprise, rather than a reformatory institution. The industries pursued are tailoring, shoemaking, weaving, carpentry, cooperage, ropemaking, blacksmithing, and wood-carving. The third stage is an intermediate prison, in which 68 convicts reside in two cottages, resembling the houses of the peasants who inhabit the country ; these cottages are at a considerable distance from the penitentiary. Here they live, with no guards but the overseers of their work, and no bars or bolts to restrain them from running away. Half of them work on the farm ; the other half follow the trades which they have learned during their incarceration. There has never been an escape. They are content to await the moment of their conditional liberation ; were they to anticipate it, they would be remanded to the penitentiary.

THE BETTER PROTECTION OF MATERNITY.

We make laws to protect animals against abuse and neglect and ignorance, and it is humane to make them and enforce them. In all the range of human affairs, there is no neglect, no wrong, no cruelty, that compares with the neglect and ignorance associated with motherhood. A woman about to become a mother stands in the most sacred relation human life presents. Neglect is so common, that it passes current ; it may be said to be expected. The facts of experience show that this neglect and ignorance constitute a direct cause of insanity in a large number of cases, and in a vast many more an indirect cause, by first breaking down the general health. What a wrong ! A wrong which arises to heaven, day by day, but seemingly in vain !

Passing from motherhood we come to a too current sentiment productive of infinite evil. I mean the sentiment which leads men and women to believe that home can be a place of more comfort, and life happier, without children. The effect of such a hideous sentiment on life and society is appalling. For women, there can be no more fatal error than to yield to the temptation to enter upon so unholy a compact. I look back through the pages of experience burned into my mind, and see the long list of insane proceeding directly or indirectly from this cause. I sometimes question if even the evils of intemperance are greater than those to which I now refer.

If women really knew better, a large number would save themselves more than they do ; and if men had an intelligent appreciation of these matters, their wives would be better off.

Is there a remedy for the better protection of maternity ? I have long had in my mind the idea of an association for this work. I will not say charity. It is no more a charity than the organization of a church is charity. One is an organized association for the instruction and aid of people in their religious duties ; the other would be an organized association for instruction and aid in maternal duties.

In two instances I have endeavored to enlist men with large means, who were contemplating benevolent disposition of their fortunes, but I did not succeed, though I have always believed that I should have succeeded in one case, if death had not come suddenly and unexpectedly. In my conversation with this gentleman, one of his questions, I remember, was : Would it not require a great many nurses ? No, I would simply suggest the employment of suitable women of the same social class, to do the housework and be paid for it by an association—the association (under the notice of a physician in all cases) to furnish such aid. It would not be a public, but a private and unpretentious, mode of work. If women knew that they would have all needed care, not in a hospital, with its necessary publicity and separation from home, but in their own homes, what a burden would be lifted, what health saved, and what insanity prevented !

For at least a month after childbirth, no woman should be subject to toil or worry, and surely not to want of food and care.

I have heard the wail of sorrow come up from too many households to keep silent. I have looked into the meaningless eyes of too many mothers lost by neglect, to stay my voice.

—From *An Address on Some of the Preventible Causes of Insanity*, by Dr. JOHN B. GRAY, delivered at Utica.

The treasury contribution to public lunatic asylums both in England and Ireland is at the rate of 4*s*. per head per week.

AURAL HALLUCINATIONS.

Dr. Samuel Sexton, at the March meeting of the Practitioners' Society of New York, brought before it a case of aural hallucinations which, he thought, might serve to attract attention to the question of the relations of *tinnitus aurium* to mental disease. Dr. Allan McLane Hamilton had seen the patient and pronounced him insane from alcoholism, with both delusions and hallucinations, and likely to develop into a dangerous lunatic. His tongue points slightly to one side, and the pupils of the eye are unequal. On recovery from an attack of delirium tremens he heard voices in his left ear. The *Medical Record*, in its report of the case, says that he describes a "beating" sound in the ear, synchronous with the pulsation of the heart, and a "buzzing." Sometimes there is a low whistling. The utterances heard are always profane or otherwise bad, and on "giving himself up" to the delusion he believes himself to be the subject of abusive language. When he himself is not directly the subject of invectives, he is still cognizant of a colloquy between two individuals on some other topic. He often fancies that "a party in the house is playing a game on him" with an electric battery: he can hear it "click," and "it nearly shakes him out of bed, and plays on his head like a hose." Then he is annoyed by speaking and whistling through a gas-pipe or tube coming up through the floor. He says that the "voices" always remain outside the door; one of them is a heavy bass voice—the other is high and squeaky; they are comparatively as a "tin whistle to a cornet." The upper air-tract is hypertrophied, the drum-heads lustreless and somewhat atrophied. There are other evidences of loss of tension in the transmitting mechanism. His hearing is defective. His own voice never sounds autophonously. Dr. Sexton thinks that sounds in the head, due to chronic catarrh or acute aural disease, may give rise to veritable insane delusions in neuropathic subjects; and that, perhaps, in a very considerable number of persons mentally insane, a knowledge of the condition of the drum-head and adjacent parts might be available in forming a diagnosis of the case, as well as aiding in the treatment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

The editor of the RECORD desires to thank the Italian committee of arrangements for the International Prison Congress at Rome for a most graceful and acceptable attention. He has received from them a large-sized photograph of his father, which was displayed on the wall of the chamber of the Palace of Fine Arts in which the Congress held its sessions, and which is inscribed: "Portrait de Mr. E. C. Wines, qui a été exposé dans la grande salle des réunions générales du Congrès pénitentiaire internationale de Rome (Novembre, 1885), offert à la famille par le Comité. Torlonia, F. de Renzis, Tancredi Canonico, Clemente Levi, M. Beltrani Scalia, N. Vazio; le Secrétaire, Bernabo Silorata."

We have to thank Fr. Bruun, of Copenhagen, formerly director of the Prisons of Denmark, for a copy of a pamphlet of one hundred and twenty pages, bearing the title "Beretning fra Kontoret for Fœngelsavœsenet om Straffanstalternes Tilstand i Tidsrummet fra 1ste April, 1878, til 31te Marts, 1883."

If the impeachment of Warden Laverty, of New Jersey, before tbe State senate, shall result in the establishment of a separate prison for women in that State, officered by women only, and shall give an impetus to the movement for the establishment of similar prisons elsewhere, Minnie Schaefer will not have lived in vain.

OUR FOREIGN EXCHANGES.

Foreign special journals would confer a favor upon us by placing THE RECORD upon their exchange list. Copies for exchange should be sent to the editor, at Springfield, Illinois.

The *Blätter für Gefängnisskunde*, the organ of the Union of German Prison Officials, published by Gustave Ekert, comes to us in a double number. It contains: The State of English Prisons; The Separate System in France; Carl Otto August von Götzen; Correspondence; The Third International Prison Congress; Miscellanies; Personal Intelligence; Changes in Membership; Financial Statement.

The March number of the *Bulletin de la Société Générale des Prisons* contains, in addition to the proceedings at the monthly séance, articles on the organization of The French Prison System; the Old and New Prison of Madrid; the Society of St. Leonard: the History of Prisons in Russia; the History of Prison Reform in Sweden; Aid to Discharged Prisoners. We again recommend this journal to American readers, as an almost indispensable aid to the study of the prison question. Its scope and spirit are truly cosmopolitan.

We have received the *Journal of Mental Science* for April. The principal articles are: On the Right of Reclamation of the Insane before the Civil Courts, by Dr. A. Foville; Irish Asylum Dietary, by Dr. E. M. Courtenay; Drunkenness in Relation to Criminal Responsibility, by Dr. G. H. Savage; the Psychological Bearings of the recent Matriculation Examination of the London University; together with the usual clinical notes and cases, occasional notes of the quarter, reviews, psychological retrospect, and notes and news. We observe, with pleasure, the broad and liberal spirit in which Dr. Foville discusses the relation of the insane to the courts, which is absolutely free from medical bigotry. Appreciative obituary notices are printed in the *Journal* of two American superintendents of hospitals for the insane—Drs. John W. Sawyer and J. H. Worthington. Dr. Goldsmith, who is Dr. Sawyer's successor at the Butler Hospital, is mentioned in highly complimentary terms.

We must adhere to the expressed opinion that it is very undesirable that medical practitioners should derive profit from lodging the insane in their houses; and to the view that single patients are not, as a rule, well placed. It is no part of our contention that the treatment of lunacy must be carried on by specialists. Our readers generally will not fail to know that we claim for the profession as a whole the right to practise every branch of the art of healing. The opinions we have formed on this subject are based on experience and observation, and we must be excused for feeling strongly, and saying plainly, that when the subjects of mental disease are removed from the immediate care of their friends, it is better that they should be placed in the custody of public officials responsible to the State, who derive no pecuniary advantage from receiving the individuals under their care.

FACT AND OPINION.

If you wish to be noticed in the RECORD do not fail to send us such items as you may think worthy of a place in its columns.

Charity Organization.

A Charity Organization Society is an association of the business men of any city for the following purposes: To study the whole questions of the evils incident to great cities; to study the causes of poverty; to control, so far as they may be able, the abuses; to search out each case of suffering and distress, and see that it is promptly and adequately relieved, that not one case of need goes unaided through ignorance or neglect. It makes a business of this. It spends money for information. It pays for the best service it can get to do this work. Its entire expenditure is understood by those who maintain it to be for this administrative purpose. It may be likened to a commercial agency, or a citizens' association, or a law and order league. It gives no relief, but it provides relief for all entitled to it, through the already existing agencies. It lifts up the man lying on the Jericho road, and takes him to some place of aid, and sees to it that his wants are attended to. It is to be judged by its success in doing this, as the benefit of a board of health is to be studied by the better sanitary condition of the community.—O. C. MCCULLOCH.

The Indianapolis Benevolent Society and the Indianapolis Charity Organization Society are distinct associations, but united by a bond something like that which joined Chang and Eng. They have the same president and the same office, they make a joint report, and their annual meeting occurs at the same time and place. But the Benevolent Society receives and distributes aid, while the Charity Organization Society does not. The Benevolent Society takes the cases that the Charity Organization Society brings to it. The latter, by its district committees, investigated last year 920 cases, representing 3,783 persons. These were classified as worthy of relief, 281 ; needing work rather than relief, 256 ; and unworthy, not requiring or not entitled to relief, 383. The cost of this investigation was $1,513.64. The Benevolent Society gives relief, finds employment, has a Friendly Inn with a capacity of ninety-five beds, also a Friendly Wood-yard, and a free bath-house on the canal. Its total current expenditure does not much exceed $3,000. Apparently, it pays nothing for investigating. The extent of its work will be understood from the following summary : Families relieved at the office, 194 ; at the Friendly Inn (individuals), 2,784, of whom 1,578 were given work ; meals furnished at the inn, 6,010 ; lodgings, 8,381 ; days' work at the wood-yard, 3,981 ; free baths given, 9,116 ; places found through employment agency, 344.

Hospital Relief.

The work of the Hospital Relief Association of Maryland, which is very inexpensive—costing only about $600 a year—is divided into six departments : (1) books and papers, (2) clothing, (3) flower, (4) pictures and decoration, (5) fruit and visiting, including the writing of letters, (6) music. Its special purpose is to supply to the sick in hospitals such comforts as they could not otherwise procure. The summary statement, "How to Help the Association," printed in the annual report, is worth quoting : "By becoming a member ; by visiting the different hospitals, and seeing for yourself what has been done ; by telling others about it ; by sending books, magazines and papers, pictures, flowers, fruit, delicacies, clothing, etc. ; by loaning your carriage occasionally to the chairmen of such committees as may need it, especially the flower mission and committee on music ; by remembering it in your will." The Home for Incurables was established and placed on its feet in consequence of the exertions of this society.

The Insane.

The average weekly cost per head for wines, spirits, and porter, in the county asylums of England, fell, in seven years, from 1876 to 1883, from 1½ d. to ¾ d., or one half ; in borough asylums, from 1⅞ d. to ½ d., or nearly three fourths. The non-alcoholic treatment of insanity is gaining ground.

In the Middlesex Lunatic Hospital at Banstead, England, letter-boxes have been placed in the wards, but the patients, as a rule, prefer giving their letters to the medical officers on their rounds, to posting them in the boxes. This is precisely what may be expected, wherever the experiment is tried, at home or abroad.

The cubic space which the English commissioners in lunacy require to be provided in associated dormitories is 600 feet for each patient. But this rule ignores the fact that less space is required where the fresh air flows in a constant stream through the room, than where the air is stagnant and foul. The question is not so much one of cubic space as of air-supply by means of efficient ventilation.

A convenient rule for calculating the amount of floor-space required in institutions devoted to the care of the chronic insane is as follows : Allow for dining-rooms 15 square feet for each patient ; for day-rooms, 30 feet ; and for associated dormitories, 45 feet. It will be observed that 30 and 45 are multiples of 15 ; in other words, $30 = 15 \times 2$, and $45 = 15 \times 3$. If the ventilation is defective, more room will be necessary ; these are the *minimum* figures, but they are ordinarily sufficient.

The Deaf and the Blind.

The fund for aiding destitute deaf-mutes, in Philadelphia, now amounts to $10,000.

The legislature of Washington Territory has adopted Mr. McFarland's school for deaf-mntes, at Tacoma, and christened it "The Washington School for Defective Youth."

A legislature committee in Iowa has recommended the removal of the superintendent and matron of the Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb—on what ground, we do not know, as we have not seen the charges nor the evidence in the case.

A paragraph has appeared in several of the papers, stating that a Dr. Emile Martin has invented an apparatus which will enable the blind to see. The mechanism is said to be of platinum, and it can be affixed without pain, so as to excite in the optic nerve the sensation of light and the power of vision. So high is the opinion the Paris Academy of Medicine has formed, primâ facie, of Dr. Martin's invention, that a committee of its members is reported to be now engaged in practically testing its merit. It is to be feared that the testing will end in disappointment. Will this invention render the cornea transparent when opaque, and thus cure half the blind at a stroke? or will it restore the functions of the atrophic nerve with cupped disc too often seen in glaucoma? or is it only a modification of the ordinary treatment by electricity?—*Lancet.*

The Kansas institution has received an Indian pupil, eighteen years of age, with a system of signs devised by himself, which have afforded much entertainment to his new companions.

L'Amateur Photograph announces that the Brothers of the Christian Schools have made an ingenious application of photography to the art of teaching deaf-mutes to articulate. One of their pupils, who can pronounce all the sounds of the French language, has been "taken" with his mouth in the various positions necessary for their production, so that the mode of pronunciation can be seen, if not heard, by those in need of such artificial helps.

Children.

Dr. George E. Shipman's Foundlings' Home, at Chicago, cared, during the calendar year 1885, for 309 babies, of whom 38 died, and 80 were adopted. The number of new cases was 248, of whom one third were foundlings, and the other two thirds came with their mothers. The Home is a home for mothers as well as babes, so long as they live and behave properly. The average number of inmates was 125, namely, 58 adults and 67 babies, who were supported at a total cost, in money, of $5,000. The institution receives generous contributions in the form of supplies. It is managed on the "faith principle." It publishes a monthly journal, *Faith's Record*, a feature of which is the diary of events from day to day. The atmosphere of the house is intensely religious, and a considerable number of evangelical books and tracts have issued from the "Foundlings' Home Press."

The sixteenth annual report of the inspector of prisons and public charities, for the province of Ontario, shows that there are subject to his inspection nineteen houses of refuge (homes for the destitute) twenty-four orphan asylums, and five Magdalen asylums. The following table exhibits, in the first column, the number of inmates of each class remaining at the close of the year ; in the second, the total number receiving lodgment at any time during the year ; and in the third, the total cost of maintenance, not including extraordinary repairs and betterments :

Houses of Refuge . . .	978	1,857	$86,006 43
Orphan Asylums . . .	1,639	3,296	89,833 27
Magdalen Asylums . .	176	437	17,995 89
Total	2,793	5,590	$193,835 59

The Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum Society of Brooklyn, N. Y., maintains three homes : St. John's Home for Boys, corner of St. Mark's and Albany avenues, in charge of Mother de Chantal and the Sisters of St. Joseph ; St. Joseph's Asylum for Girls, corner of Willoughby and Sumner avenues, in charge of Sister Mary Lewis and Sisters of Charity ; and St. Paul's Industrial School for Young Girls, corner of Congress and Clinton streets, in charge of Sister Eulalia and Sisters of Charity. The total number of children in all these institutions, on the 25th of March, 1886, was 1,464. Excluding moneys expended for building, the cost of maintenance last year was about $90,000, which is equivalent to say $60 for each inmate. One half of this expenditure was for provisions, groceries, and supplies. The receipts from Kings county, the board of excise, and the board of education, amounted to nearly $72,000, leaving about $18,000 current expenses to be raised by voluntary contributions. The movement of population is slight, there having been admitted during the year but 232 new inmates. The society maintains also the Sacred Heart Sanitarium at Coney Island, to which the more delicate children are transferred by turns during the hot summer months.

The Connecticut Industrial School for Girls, at Middletown, is not a State institution, but a private corporation, though its inmates are wards of the State, and for each girl committed to it by legal process the State pays $2.75 a week. The form of committal is by civil, rather than criminal process ; the form of commitment is "to the guardianship and control of the institution till she is twenty-one, unless she is sooner discharged according to law. Any two of the directors may discharge a girl for sufficient reasons, or may bind her to service, still retaining the right of control prescribed by law. It has two hundred inmates, in five large family houses ; the school building contains four rooms and a chapel ; the superintendent has a separate residence. The total number of girls received, since January 1, 1870, is six hundred and seventy-five, from seven to eighteen years of age. The principal industry is the manufacture of paper boxes, the net earnings from which are about $575 per month. The children of the Roman Catholic faith receive instruction every Sunday morning, from the Sisters of Mercy. The trustees remark : "There is no want of opportunities for placing girls as soon as they are prepared to go out. The chief care to be exercised in this matter consists in selecting families where the habits and dispositions of both parties can be made to harmonize. Applications from parents or relatives of the girls to have them returned to their service and supervision are not generally regarded with favor and are seldom granted—never without careful investigation and satisfactory evidence of responsibility, both as to character and means."

The Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty has permanent investment funds amounting to about $25,000, and receives an appropriation from the State treasury, in addition to which it collects

money by subscription. It expended last year $6,747.91. The number of cases dealt with was 886, involving 1,929 children, 664 of whom were surrendered to the society and assigned to places—the majority of them to institutions, but 251 found homes in private families. Most of them were sent to institutions temporarily, pending legal proceedings, and were subsequently disposed of, either among private families or children's homes. The society favors the placing-out plan. It has sustained a very severe loss in the death of its devoted and able secretary, Mr. Benjamin J. Crew. The total number of complaints disposed of in ten years, since its organization, in 1876, is 15,263.

The Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children reports an expenditure of $11,226.05. It dealt last year with 891 new cases, and reinvestigated 1,620 old ones; the total number of children involved was 6,316, of whom 765 were placed in homes, institutions, etc. It has 350 agents in the various towns of the State. It maintains a temporary home at 297 Broadway, Cambridgeport, where children are cared for until they can be permanently disposed of. The general office is at No. 1 Pemberton Square, Boston. In cases of cruelty by beating or inflicting pain, the society prosecutes for assault; in cases of wilful neglect, it takes the children before a magistrate, for commitment to the custody of the city, town, or State; in other cases it applies to the probate court for guardianship and custody. Its aim is to rescue children from degraded homes. The law of 1882, in Massachusetts, makes neglect to support children a criminal offence, punishable by six months imprisonment in the house of correction; under this law the society places the father on probation, on condition of a weekly payment to his family; failing in this, he is committed. Among the evils which it combats may be named the exhibition of children on the stage, especially of monstrosities in dime museums; baby-farming, child-peddling, corporal punishment in schools, etc. It publishes an excellent digest of the laws of Massachusetts concerning children, which can be obtained by application to the secretary, Mr. Frank B. Fay.

Whatever may be the excellences of an institution, however well managed and endowed, it does not and can not give the family home life which is so favorable, if not essential, to the development of habits of thought and action the most likely to fit a child to become self-reliant and self-supporting in the future. An institution always has the great disqualification that it is an institution—and not a home, where the children are stimulated by the varied life of the family, its plans and pleasures, its daily contact at many points with the interests of the outside world through the children of other families, at school, at church, and in the street; and where they are obliged to exert themselves in connection with others of the family to assist in ever-varying ways to supply their own immediate wants, and where they are in a sense counted in as one of the factors in the direction of affairs. In an institution, although great efforts are made to approach as nearly to the family life as possible, every thing is necessarily according to a certain routine. The children, with the limited amount of supervision afforded, must act in accordance with certain rules. They can not be permitted to use their own judgment in self-assistance and self-government to the extent that may be allowed in a family. Children are too apt to become fond of this institution life. They learn to love the routine of an establishment where they have to take no thought for themselves, and every thing seems to be done and provided for them without effort on their part.—TRUSTEES OF THE MASSACHUSETTS STATE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Prisons and Prisoners.

In Carthagena, in Spain, last year, out of a total prison population of about 2,000, there were 309 cases of Asiatic cholera, of which 143 terminated fatally.

The average age of the prisoners in the Massachusetts Reformatory is twenty-two years and seven months. The youngest is fifteen years, and the oldest is over seventy. The largest number of any given age is found in the group born in 1866, now nineteen years old, of whom there are forty-nine.

The superintendent of State prisons for the State of New York, Mr. Isaac V. Baker, Jr., is of the opinion that one thousand dollars per prisoner employed is a fair estimate of the capital needed in order to conduct the business of the New York prisons successfully upon the public account system. In addition to this working capital, he thinks that the sum of $400,000 is necessary to meet current expenditures for care and maintenance. The average number of convicts is about 2,900.

A second edition of "Our Criminals and Christianity," by W. M. F. Round, has been issued. The writer says: "The Criminal Class consists of those persons who are not in harmony with the legal order of things as touching the relations of persons and property. It consists of the active enemies of social order who break the written laws. In its broadest definition, it consists of those who live by crime. This definition makes the criminal class inclusive of all whose livelihood depends on the commission of crime as the dependent families of active criminals. In the United States, according to the census of 1880, there were in our penal institutions, in round numbers, 60,000 persons (59,255). By the best authorities it is reckoned that not more than one fifth of the active criminals are in prison at one time. This would bring our active criminal population up to 300,000. It is reckoned that the criminals in prison only represent one twelfth of those whose livelihood is dependent upon criminal practices. Thus we have 720,000, or nearly three quarters of a million persons directly interested in the perpetration of crime and the perpetuation of the criminal profession. In the State of New York we had last year 15,690 persons in our penal institutions, including the prisons, jails, penitentiaries, and other institutions to which persons are sentenced by the courts of law. This, it will be seen, is more than one quarter of the criminal population of the country, and is an increase of thirty-three per cent. over the estimated criminal population of the State in 1880. In the same length of time the population of the State has increased but about twenty per cent."

From Colorado comes a remarkable story of an escape from the penitentiary at Cañon City, by a convict. The hero is a five-year man, who managed to secure a citizen's shirt and trousers, which he put on under his striped suit, and, watching his opportunity while at work on the sewer, slipped into a barn, took off his stripes, and deliberately walked out of town into the foot-hills. He had not been gone five minutes, when he was missed and the pursuit began. From his place of concealment he saw mounted men starting in different directions after him. He believed, from his acquaintance with the country, that he would nevertheless be able to get away. But while lying among the rocks he began to think what he should do afterward. First, he would have to steal some additional clothing; then he must have a horse and money, and, in getting them, he might have to commit murder. He would not be able to return to his family at Kansas City, nor to his old home in Illinois. Detectives would be on his trail wherever he might go, and he saw nothing before him but a life of crime and a criminal's death. He was an outlaw, an outcast, with a price upon his head. Then the words spoken by the warden in an address to the prisoners came to his mind and sank into his heart. He thought that Gen. Cameron was a kind man and would receive him, should he return and give himself up; but he could not bear to face the jeers of his fellow-convicts, who had known him as the leader in every revolt and a man determined to regain his liberty. For two days he remained in his hiding-place, without food or shelter. Finally he arose, retraced his steps, knocked at the door of the prison, after night-fall, was invited into the parlor, shaken hands with, assured that he would receive no punishment other than the loss of his "good time," and locked up. "I tell you, General," he said, "there is nothing in it. I have made up my mind to stay until my time is out; then I can go through the front gate like a man, and be a man the balance of my life." This is a new version of the parable of the prodigal son; but it is pretty evident that this man, like the prodigal, had come to himself. The delirium of crime was over.

Miscellaneous.

Dr. G. C. Paoli read a paper before the Chicago Medical Society, April 19th, entitled "The Reason why Female Physicians are Desirable in Insane Asylums."

Dr. E. C. Harwood, has been appointed visiting physician to the Hospital for Nervous Diseases, Blackwell's Island, New York, to succeed Dr. Delany, deceased.

The Protestant Episcopal City Mission in Philadelphia maintains, in addition to its missionary department, a home for consumptives and four sick-diet kitchens, at a total annual cost of a little over $17,000. It administers out-door relief to the amount of about $2,000. Its mission work is largely in the charitable and correction institutions in the city.

The Metropolitan Board of Works proposes to dispose of the sewage of London by three processes: *First*, precipitation, by the addition of 3.7 grains of lime and 1 grain of proto-sulphate of iron to each gallon of sewage, with subsidence for from one to two hours. *Second*, the reduction of the sludge to the smallest possible bulk by filter-presses, when it can be readily removed. *Third*, the deodorization of the efferent water, by the use of marganate of soda and sulphuric acid.

I wish that the preachers throughout the land would prepare themselves for one sermon to business men upon the proposition that every legitimate bargain naturally involves equivalent benefit to both parties, and that any other bargain is immoral. What a transformation would be effected, more indeed in the temper than in the methods of business men, if they could fully realize that there is no charity, no method of helpfulness to their neighbors equal to carrying on a legitimate business justly—justly, not in the legal but in the absolute moral sense.—CHARLES A. COLLIN.

We clip from the *Bulletin* of the French Prison Society the following notice of this paper: Nôtre honorable collègue, M. Frederick H. Wines, entrepend, à New York, la publication d'un nouveau recueil pénitentiaire intitulé THE INTERNATIONAL RECORD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION. Il est consacré à la discussion de toutes les questions relative, au traitement et à la direction des classes malheureuses et criminelles, considerées aux points de vue humanitaire, économique, scientifiques gouvernemental, et pratique; il recuille tous les seignements possibles dans les différentes parties du monde, et constate tous les progrès accomplis pour adoucir les souffrances des classes malheureuses et réprimer leurs excès; il est destiné non seulement aux personnes qui par leurs fonctions publiques ou privées sont appelés à diriger les œuvres de charité et de repression mais à toutes celles qui s'interessent au bienêtre et à la dignité de l'humanité. Ce recueil paraîtra mensuellement et ne coûtera chaque année que la somme modique de $1. Nous souhaitons à son eminent directeur tout le succès que mérite une œuvre de science et de dévouement.